

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, MANAGING EDITOR

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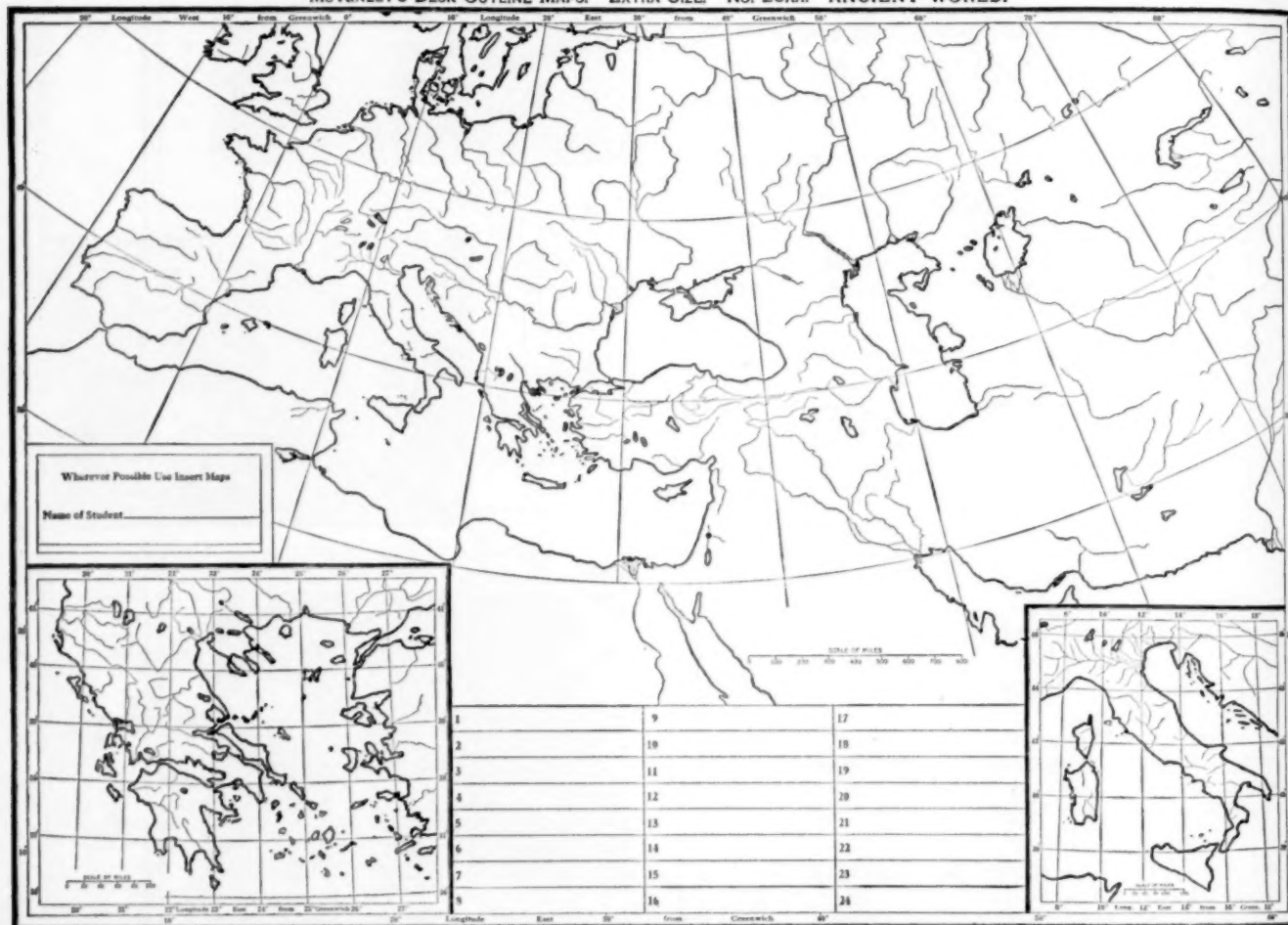
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The Forty-Sixth Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association

Held December 28, 29, 30, 1931

REPORTED BY DR. GERTRUDE DOXEY

It was fitting that, whereas the last meeting of the American Historical Association had been held in the heart of the East, the meeting of 1931 should take place in the West. Minneapolis and the University of Minnesota were proud to be able at last to extend to the Association the welcome they had been forced to forego fourteen years since, when the transportation problems incidental to the war compelled the Historical Association to change its place of meeting from Minneapolis to Cleveland. The convention had its headquarters in the New Nicollet Hotel, though the sessions of the second day were held on the campus of the University of Minnesota. The weather, contrary to the fears of many of the delegates present—and the expectations of many others who had failed to come—was as mild as could have been expected in any part of northern United States, and the convention's hosts endeavored to outdo the weatherman in their proffers of hospitality.

As a whole, the papers presented at the forty-sixth meeting of the Association were of a relatively high caliber. The usual diversity as to subjects was apparent, but insofar as any general tendency could be observed, it lay in the direction of economic history. Only one sectional meeting was devoted entirely and ostensibly to economic history, but the papers read at four or five others were of a similar nature, and both economic and social history received unusual emphasis. One of the most interesting meetings of the convention was that devoted to "Aspects of European Economic History," under the chairmanship of A. H. Lybyer of the University of Illinois. At this meeting M. M. Knight of the University of California spoke on "The Dry Wall of Islam and Europe's Economic Organization," in which he stated that "Islam" was the product of a dry environment, and found its most enduring successes in the great dry arc from Morocco to East-Central Asia, and thus lay between more humid regions which had traded with each other for centuries. Mr. Knight traced briefly the history of the trade through this area, stating that under normal conditions caravan transportation was

relatively cheap and efficient, and that, contrary to modern ideas, the northern routes were less expensive than the Red Sea route. The real insulation of producers from direct contact with their markets was broken down, not by Vasco da Gama and the discovery of the water route to India, but in the seventeenth century, under the stress of European competition. Lawrence A. Harper, also of the University of California, read the next paper, on "The Court of the Exchequer as a Source of Economic History," in which he pointed out the immense value for historians of the records of the Court of the Exchequer for the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when the Court had the task of enforcing the laws of trade and navigation as well as those of the revenue. From the actual files of the Court, the student will perhaps not learn as much as from accompanying documents; the *Extents and Inquisitions*, the *Outlawries* and the *Writs* will give him a maximum of detailed information encumbered as little as possible with legal verbiage. Other series—the *Special Commissions of Inquiry*, *Bille*, *Barons Depositions*, *Depositions Taken by Commission* taken together with such sources as the *Plea Rolls*, and records of equity cases—serve a similar end. The great advantage of this type of source material is the greater probability of its truthfulness. A paper on the fairs of Champagne in the thirteenth century by Robert L. Reynolds of the University of Wisconsin followed. The fairs were treated from the Italian point of view; it was contended that the Italian merchants and especially the Genoese, were using the credit system as early as the thirteenth century, for, as Mr. Reynolds ingeniously pointed out, the time of the delivery in Genoa of goods purchased in Champagne was too short to have allowed for the sending of the purchase money to France. The final paper of the session was given by another scholar from the University of California, Waldemar Westergaard, and dealt with the part played by the Hansa towns in the achievement of Swedish independence. Mr. Westergaard concluded that "Sweden's independence was achieved not only by the efforts of its own citizenry,

but by the help brought to Sweden in German merchant vessels sailing out from Lübeck and Danzig."

The sections dealing with American history dealt for the most part with national questions of especial interest to the Middle West, as was fitting considering the place of meeting. Immigration and the frontier, large-scale farming, and missionary activities among the Indians are all topics with which the Middle West is especially concerned, and the discussions were often as interesting and as general as any in the whole convention. Particularly thought-provoking was the session on Immigration held Monday morning, at which the only paper was delivered by Marcus L. Hansen of the University of Illinois. It was entitled "The Relations of Immigration to Some of the Fundamental Factors of American Life: Expansion, Sectionalism, Democracy, Puritanism." The paper as a whole was interpretive rather than circumstantial; immigration was presented as a nationalizing force, democratic but not radical. Especially interesting was the treatment of Puritanism; instead of agreeing with the view that Puritanism was weakened by immigration, Mr. Hansen presented the idea that the new stocks that came over in the nineteenth century were as Puritan as the old, and attributed the revival of Puritanism after 1860 to the influence of these immigrant stocks. The discussion that followed was led by G. M. Stephenson of the University of Minnesota; Mr. Stephenson questioned Mr. Hansen's statement that for the most part the immigrants were to be found in the second rank of the expansion movement, contending that the Scandinavians and the Germans were often at the forefront of the westward advance. The session was held under the chairmanship of Joseph Schafer.

Mr. Schafer also presided over the meeting on Agricultural History held in the afternoon of the same day. At this session two papers on large scale farming in the last half of the nineteenth century were read. (Harold E. Briggs, Culver-Stockton College, "Early Bonanza Farming in the Red River Valley," and Paul W. Gates, Bucknell University, "Large Scale Farming in Illinois in the 1850's and 1860's.") They were especially pertinent because of the interesting trend of present-day agriculture in the direction of large-scale farming. The last paper was on "The Background of the First Bill to Establish a Bureau of Markets," by James C. Malin of the University of Kansas. It stated that earlier movements such as the Granger movement looked for the solution of market-ing problems in monetary reform, whereas the American Society of Equity program changed to place the emphasis on control of production and marketing, and linked up the groups attacking the middle man. One of the chief difficulties in the way of the reformers was the conservatism of the Department of Agriculture and the leading agricultural schools; it was almost impossible to obtain statistics, and hence to be sure of actual conditions. Chairman Schafer concluded the meeting with several pertinent observations on large scale farming today and its possible extension in the future.

Missionary activities in America were the subject of a conference held on the last day of the convention, under the chairmanship of Winfred T. Root (University of Iowa). A paper on "Seminary Projects for the Missions among Catholic Germans in the United States, 1835-1855" was read by Peter L. Johnson of St. Francis Seminary. Marie J. Kohnova of the College of St. Scolastica spoke on the "Americanization of the Moravians with Special Relation to their Missions"; this paper went quite extensively into the background of the history of the Moravian church, and, partially because of its unusual subject, provoked considerable discussion. A paper on the "Government Policy with Respect to Missions among the Indians" was presented by Grace L. Nute of the Minnesota Historical Society. Miss Nute traced the government policy of annual appropriations to the various missions among the Indians from 1819 to 1871, and showed how it failed, partially at least, because it was impossible to keep the Indians at a mission school. Because of this difficulty the government policy after 1871 changed to one of keeping the Indians on reservations set apart for them. A discussion followed, devoted in part to an interchange of views as to whether the policy of civilizing the Indians through missions failed because the Indian race was incapable of becoming civilized.

At the conference on American Foreign Relations, presided over by Samuel F. Bemis of George Washington University, Julius W. Pratt of the University of Buffalo read a paper entitled "Preparing the American Public for Overseas Expansion, 1889-1898." Mr. Pratt's paper was factual and conclusive and showed clearly the results of laborious research. He traced the growing spirit of enthusiasm for expansion among journalists and politicians during the decade prior to the Spanish-American War. There was a deliberate effort to build up sentiment for expansion; the expansion was not due to business men, but to politicians and journalists. As far as the responsibility lay on individual shoulders, it can be traced to Admiral Mahan, President Roosevelt, and Lodge. L. M. Sears, who led the discussion that followed, agreed, in the main, with the conclusions presented in the paper, and suggested that material for further studies would be found in the treatment of the opposition to overseas expansion, opposition which culminated in the Bryan campaign of 1900, and in a discussion of the results of the expansionist movement.

A joint session of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association and the American Historical Association with Solon J. Buck of the University of Pittsburgh presiding, was held on Tuesday morning. Four papers were presented: "A Footnote to the Quebec Act," by Louise Phelps Kellogg (State Historical Society of Wisconsin), "The Red River Valley and the War of 1812," by John Perry Pritchett (University of North Dakota), "Minnesota, the Federal Land Policy, and the Republican Party," by Verne E. Chatelain, and—in addition to the printed program—"The Influence of the Foreign-born in the Election of 1860," by

Donnal V. Smith (New York State College for Teachers, Albany). The dinner of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association and the Agricultural History Society on Monday evening was marked by informal addresses by T. J. Wertenbaker of Princeton University and Frederic L. Paxson of the University of Wisconsin. Mr. Paxson spoke especially of the problem of the agricultural surplus, stating that the American farmer has been the only farmer in history to receive any benefit from the surplus of the goods he produces. It is a question whether or not this condition of affairs can be made to continue.

One meeting under the presidency of Charles W. Hackett of the University of Texas was devoted to Hispanic-American history. Lillian E. Fisher of the Oklahoma College for Women presented a paper on "Intellectual Conditions in Mexico at the End of the Colonial Period" in which she showed the unprogressive spirit of those in authority, manifested in their censorship of publications, and the lack of common ideas among the various classes, each of which had its own views and selfish aspirations. The reverse of the picture was marked by a by no means despicable achievement in cultural fields, and by the growing influence of foreign writings, sometimes smuggled in, on the younger intellectuals. The petitions for educational reform about 1810 make it evident that there was a steady stream of enlightenment in the country at the time. The second paper, by Arthur S. Aiton of the University of Michigan, dealt with "Spanish Colonial Reorganization under the Family Compact." Mr. Aiton showed how great and how efficient were the changes in Spanish colonial administration produced by French influence. During the period from 1761 to 1770 France, under the leadership of Choiseul, was dominant, and a program of reorganization was adopted, with greater military strength desired and obtained. French influence waned after 1770, but the result of the reorganization was apparent at the time of the American Revolution. The final paper of the session was a treatment of "The Burr-Wilkinson Imbroglio: Possible Interpretations" by Isaac J. Cox of Northwestern University. Mr. Cox described the relations between Burr and Williamson, whom he sent to England to see about the possibility of getting aid from England in Burr's dealings against Spain and Mexico. The paper was handicapped by the cutting necessitated by the shortness of time, but the picture of Burr presented was that of an opportunist who had two schemes, the Williamson and the Wilkinson ones, on hand, and was ready to seize upon any opportunity afforded him. A luncheon conference on Monday was also devoted to Hispanic-American History.

Chester New of McMaster University presided over a meeting devoted to Canadian history. A paper on "The United States and the British Policy in Canadian Confederation" was read by Chester Martin of the University of Toronto. The curious reversal of British policy, without any important change in the personnel of the government, from an active support of a union of the maritime provinces to the dragooning of those provinces into a union that included the other prov-

inces of Canada was possibly due to the situation in the United States at the time, as a defense measure against the North. There was some discussion of the unconstitutional methods by which the union of the maritime provinces with Upper and Lower Canada was secured; much new material was presented in support of the conclusions. An interesting discussion, led by Albert L. Burt of the University of Minnesota, followed. Among the points brought out were the possible economic factors leading towards union, and the tentative suggestion that the name "confederation" was used by the advocates of union, instead of the more accurate "federation," because of sympathy with the South. Duncan McArthur of Queen's University, who was listed as one of the leaders of the discussion, was unable to be present.

One conference on Monday afternoon was concerned with ancient history. It met under the chairmanship of J. A. O. Larsen of the University of Chicago. Three papers were read; the first, by A. T. Olmstead of the University of Chicago, pointed out the value of archeological contributions to the study of the earliest periods of history, and indicated several new lines of investigation. Archeology has been rapidly extending the field of ancient history farther back, and has forced historians to discard the "air-tight compartments" into which they had placed Assyrians, Cretans, Egyptians, and to realize the change and interchange of ideas and cultures that took place in the ancient world. The eastern half of the Roman empire and the Parthian kingdom need further investigation; the great difficulty is the language question, for modern scholars are loth to spend the time necessary for the mastery of seven or eight difficult tongues. C. N. Cochrane of the University of Toronto read a paper on the Augustinian interpretation of history in which he showed the tremendous revolution in the conception of history the Augustinian doctrines entailed. The Augustinian theory, which recognized the individual and his experience as central, and made history subjective, the history of the human spirit, was a complete departure from the mechanized conception of history as the action and reaction of external objects. A talk by Mr. Albert of Evanston on ancient city planning, unannounced on the program, followed.

The session on mediaeval culture had as its presiding officer James Westfall Thompson of the University of Chicago. The three papers presented dealt with widely differing subjects. The first—"The Orthodoxy of Berthold of Regensburg," by Sydney M. Brown of Lehigh University—was a sketch of the thirteenth century Franciscan preacher, the attacker of all varieties of heretics. The practicality, the force, the education of Berthold, all received attention. The most interesting point was brought out at the end; Berthold had continually preached against the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin. After the general council of the Franciscan order (in 1263) adopted the doctrine, Berthold never preached again. His silence was perhaps the self-imposed one of intellectual honesty, which refused to preach against those who had tra-

velled farther than he along the path on which he had unwittingly set his foot. The second paper (by Francis J. Tschan, Pennsylvania State College) dealt with Bernward of Hildesheim, the figure of the Ottonian renaissance who is known to most mediaevalists only by the beautiful doors he had cast for his church at Hildesheim. After a sketch of Bernward's life, Mr. Tschan spoke of his art, and characterized it as embodying in the simplicity and vigor of its conceptions, the spirit of the pre-migration art of the Germans as well as the influence of antiquity. The final paper, "The *Specula Principis* of the Carolingian Renaissance," by Lester K. Born of Western Reserve University, suffered from the condensation necessitated by the time allotted. Mr. Born treated all the works devoted to advice to princes written during the Carolingian renaissance, with especial attention to those by Hincmar of Rheims, and showed how they form part of a tradition that extends from Isocrates and Plato to the nineteenth century. He showed how the pagan advice of Isocrates differed from the mediaeval speculum, and yet how the conception of the specula—the things expected of a prince in every age—is universal and relatively unchanging throughout its history. A meeting of the Mediaeval Academy at a banquet on Monday evening was devoted to informal reports from John Marshall on forthcoming publications of the Academy, and by A. B. White of the University of Minnesota on the conferences of the last summer in London.

The meeting on Byzantine history under the chairmanship of Jesse E. Wrench of the University of Missouri was an interesting one. It was marked by a paper read by A. A. Vasiliev of the University of Wisconsin on the question of the vassalage of Old Russia to Byzantium. The conclusion reached was that from about 985 to 1100 the princes of Kiev were vassals of the Greek Emperor, and that influence was exercised upon the Russian states, mainly through the Greek Patriarch, even after that time. The scantiness of evidence made definite conclusions impossible. The student was reminded that there were three aspects of the question—the Byzantine doctrine and claims, the Russian attitude, and the ideas of western mediaeval writers might easily differ on the question, and are all important. S. H. Cross of Harvard University was scheduled to lead the discussion, but was unable to attend the convention; his paper was read in his absence by Mr. La Monte. He adopted a somewhat more doubtful attitude on the question, though agreeing in the main with Mr. Vasiliev. An interesting analogy of the relations of the Greek Empire and Russia with its relations to the crusading states was suggested by John L. La Monte, of the University of Cincinnati. Antioch, he said, was actually a vassal state of Byzantium, but Tripoli and Jerusalem acknowledged a vague hegemony only temporarily, when political exigencies made it advisable. The general discussion which followed brought out the point that we have no clear idea as to exactly what the Byzantine idea of "vassalage" included.

The meeting on the Renaissance was well attended

and provoked much favorable comment. Katharine Jeanne Gallagher of Goucher College read a paper, based mainly on the guild records, on the part played by women in the Florentine guilds during the Renaissance. She showed that, while women occasionally rose to the highest ranks in the apothecaries' and in the cloth guilds, the majority of them are found in less pretentious positions in the smaller guilds. Women in the professions are few, and are mostly daughters or widows of men in the same profession. The trades absorbed the unmarried women of the lower class, as the nunneries did those of the upper, leaving the women of the middle class as practically the only ones represented in the guilds. Women were handicapped in their participation in trade and industry by the custom of early marriage, by frequent childbearing, by the fact that a woman could rarely control capital enough for any large enterprise, and by the social disabilities under which an unmarried woman labored. George C. Sellery of the University of Wisconsin read a paper on "Non-Classical Contributions to the Humanism of the Renaissance." Using Livingston's conception of humanism as "this-worldliness," of a humanist as one who takes no stock in the life to come, but centers his attention on the life about him, Dean Sellery traced the humanism of the Middle Ages, and showed how it grew naturally and without a break into the humanism of the Renaissance. The competition of trade, the growing secularism of the thirteenth century, town life, the inevitable humanism of the majority of people formed the mediaeval humanism which we can trace in mediaeval literature, in the epics, the romances, the fabliaux of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Boccaccio especially is, in his reflection of the bourgeois society of his day, a reflector also of the humanism of the late Middle Ages. Humanism caused the revival of learning, not the revival of learning the growth of humanism. Modern and mediaeval humanism are not as "literary" as the humanism of the renaissance; the renaissance theories of humanism came after the practice, and humanism would have blossomed even without the revival of learning. The meeting was under the chairmanship of A. C. Krey of the University of Minnesota.

Modern history, to which five meetings—exclusive of those in American fields—were devoted, showed the interest of present-day scholars in the history, particularly the diplomatic history, of the World War, and in the reform movements of the nineteenth century.

Merle E. Curti of Smith College was the chairman of the meeting devoted to "Nineteenth Century Liberalism." Three papers were read at this meeting: "What Tolerance meant to Nineteenth Century America," by Howard K. Beale (Washington, D.C.), "The Influence of Edward Kellogg in American Radicalism," by Chester M. Destler of Albion College, and "Economic Aspects of Prussian Liberalism, 1857-1867," by Eugene N. Anderson of the University of Chicago. Frederick B. Artz of Oberlin was not present, and his paper was omitted. Mr. Destler brought out in his paper the little-known fact that Kellogg's

book had little influence when it first appeared, but that after the Civil War it went through several editions, and led at least in part to the reform movement that culminated in the Populist Party.

At the session on Nineteenth Century England, presided over by A. B. White of the University of Minnesota, two papers, both dealing with reform movements, were read. The first, "Palmerston and Parliamentary Representation," by Herbert C. Bell of Wesleyan University, traced Palmerston's connection with the various reform bills brought up during his career, and showed that at bottom, while Palmerston was not a reactionary or a conservative, he believed in moderation, and in considering political and social expediency when advocating reform. For instance, he was at one time against the lowering of the property qualification for suffrage on the perfectly reasonable grounds that, considering the method of conducting elections, the addition of a poorer class of voters would increase opportunities for bribery and corruption. A paper on "English Local Judicature and the Movement for its Reform" was read by Arthur Lyon Cross of the University of Michigan. He presented a great deal of source material showing the need for reform, and devoted some little time to the rehabilitation of Lord Brougham, who deserves more credit than he has received at the hands of historians for his ideas and influence as to the need and methods of reform.

The session of "Military and Diplomatic Aspects of the World War," under the presidency of Frank Maloy Anderson of Dartmouth, also drew much favorable comment. H. A. De Weerd of Denison University read a sketch of Lord Kitchener ("Lord Kitchener and the Dardanelles Campaign"), in which he showed that Kitchener was a field man and a good one, but that when he was placed in an administrative position, where he was forced to plan campaigns and do civil work, he was inadequate for the task assigned. "The World War and Diplomacy in the Balkans in 1915" was the subject of the second paper, read by F. Lee Benns of Indiana University. It pointed out the fact that the weakness of Allied diplomacy in the Balkans was that the Allies were unwilling to concentrate on any one line of endeavor, and were reluctant to promise enough. If Allied diplomacy had been successful in gaining the Greek alliance in 1915, the Gallipoli campaign might have been saved. The third paper, by Harold Deutsch of the University of Minnesota, dealt with "The Crisis in the Dual Alliance." Mr. Deutsch gave a discussion of the friction between Austria and Germany during the war and of the attempts on the part of Austria to conclude a peace before 1918. One attempt probably failed because the French were distrustful of Prince Sixtus, the mediator, who had upheld, in a Doctor's thesis at the Sorbonne, the claims of the house of Bourbon-Parma to the throne of France. The peace efforts of Czernin in 1917, and those of President Wilson were also discussed; the paper closed with the economic treaty between Austria and Germany, which was represented as less of a concession on Austria's part than historians have been wont to consider it.

The meeting on Slavonic history had as its chairman Robert J. Kerner of the University of California. Two papers were read; one by Vernon J. Puryear of Albany College, Albany, Oregon, entitled "the Anglo-French Answer to the Treaty of Unkiar-Iskelessi," utilized much documentary material from the archives of Russia, Austria, France, Germany, and England, and discussed the formation of the British Near-East policy. "Bulgaria's Entry into the World War" was the subject of a paper by Harry N. Howard of Miami University. Here again, material from the archives of Bulgaria and of other countries was utilized. The geographical and strategic importance of Bulgaria was emphasized, and it was shown that the Allies lost in Bulgaria because of divided councils. England had wished to secure the alliance of Greece first of all, Russia that of Bulgaria, and the Allies failed mainly because the Germans could offer definite rewards, and, after the failure of the Gallipoli campaign, it was apparent that German promises could be fulfilled. Ferdinand, who, since the Second Balkan War, had leaned towards the Central Powers, was the pivotal point in the negotiations.

Four papers were read at the Far East meeting on Monday. They were: "The Sino-American Tariff Treaty of 1928," by James V. A. MacMurray of Johns Hopkins University, an interesting treatment of an episode in recent history, "The Climax of Chinese Civilization in the Reign of Ch'ien Lung," by Carrol B. Malone of Colorado College, "Pigneau de Behaine, Bishop of Adan and the French Penetration of Cochin-China," by Thomas E. Ennis of West Virginia University, and read for Mr. Ennis in his absence, the sketch of a romantic eighteenth century churchman who gained the esteem of his Oriental associates, and "The China Policy of J. Ross Browne," by Paul Hibbert Clyde of the University of Kentucky. The Modern History Luncheon on Monday was a purely informal business meeting.

Teachers of history will be especially interested in the four meetings devoted to the social studies and their teaching. On Monday, a joint session of the National Council for Social Studies and the American Historical Association, under the chairmanship of R. M. Tryon of the University of Chicago, listened to four papers on the teaching of history in the secondary schools of France, Mexico, Germany, and England. O. W. Mosher, Jr. (Kansas State Teachers' College, Emporia) read a paper on the "Teaching of History in the Secondary Schools of France," in which he signalized the differences between French and American textbooks. The former are more factual and are used more as reference books. Source material is emphasized as early as the primary grades. Preparation is made, not for course, but for comprehensive examinations. Note-taking is taught, and the secondary school student is able to turn in a good note-book on lectures. C. E. Castaneda of the University of Texas discussed the changes in the Mexican educational system following the ten turbulent years preceding 1920. Since 1926 the secondary schools have been under the direction of a Bureau of Secondary Education; the

purpose of the secondary school has been regarded as that of bridging the gap between the primary and professional schools, and of enabling the student to take his place in active life if for any reason he is unable to continue further in school. In the curriculum, history is taken up in the third or last year of the preparatory schools, when the student is regarded as having acquired sufficient maturity and a background of general information. Two courses, one on Mexican history, and the other on general history, are taken concurrently. In the teaching of the former, care is taken to create as far as possible a live interest in Mexican history and civilization; museums, churches, missions, and ancient monuments in the locality are all used to this end. The actual methods used in teaching differ little from those used in America, though the quarter or semester system is unknown. Werner Neuse of New York University reported on the "Teaching of History in the Secondary Schools of Germany." He mentioned the increased importance of history in Prussian schools since the war. With German and geography, it forms a group of subjects dealing with German civilization. The emphasis has changed from political to social history, as has been the case in general. The text-book is used less than is the case in American schools; even source material is employed when possible, and local monuments are freely utilized. The German point of view holds the front stage, and some issues, especially the late war, are seen with German eyes, but in general the republican régime demands of the teacher of history a neutral attitude. Herbert Tout of the University of Minnesota presented "Some Impressions of the Teaching of History in the English Secondary Schools." His paper was especially interesting as taking up the English education from the standpoint, not of the teacher of history, but of the student. He quite amazed his audience by the casual statement that as a pupil in a secondary school, he had read all the books in the Oxford Series on the great periods in history, in preparation for an examination. The audience was also impressed by the great freedom allowed some of the older students in English secondary schools when preparing for the examination.

At a meeting on Wednesday, S. E. Thomas (Eastern Illinois Teachers' College, Charleston) presided in the absence of A. H. Noyes of Ohio State University, while George G. Andrews of the University of Iowa treated of the question "Should the American Historical Association Devote More Attention to the Teaching of History?" He decided in the affirmative, and made a special plea for a concerted study of teaching problems in the first two years of college. The paper provoked a general discussion. There seemed general agreement with the main theme of the paper. The chairman, in closing the discussion, commented upon the increased interest in teaching problems evidenced by historians and upon their co-operative spirit in dealing with pedagogical questions.

At the luncheon conference of the National Council for the Social Studies, Arthur P. Scott of the University of Chicago described the introductory course in

the Humanities with which he is connected, treating it quite frankly as an experiment out of which new ideas may develop, and modestly acknowledging indebtedness to other colleges. The course on Humanities is one of four general courses—the other three being the natural, biological, and social sciences—and is treated from the historical angle, being more or less a history of civilization. A luncheon conference on Wednesday was devoted to *Social Science Abstracts*.

A conference of representatives of teacher training institutions was held on Tuesday morning under the chairmanship of O. M. Dickerson of Greeley, Colorado. Three papers were presented and an interesting discussion ensued. Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota took as his subject the question "What Social Subjects Materials are now Included in the Load of Junior and Senior High School Teaching?" He indicated briefly the teaching combinations found and showed the complexity of the load of the teachers of social studies. The question of whether teachers ought to be trained specifically or educated broadly was also brought up. Elmer Ellis of the University of Missouri spoke of the new program in the Missouri high schools, which is marked by an attempt to standardize teaching combinations. The attempt will be a definite contribution to the teaching of the social studies if it is successful. Mr. Ellis stressed in his report training in the subject matter of the teacher's field rather than his professional preparation. In the discussion that followed, S. E. Thomas of Eastern Illinois Teachers' College raised the question of the ability of the teacher and expressed the view that attention should be paid to methods of selecting good teachers as well as to their training. The last paper dealt with the training of the Junior High School teacher and was delivered by Howard C. Hill of the University of Chicago. He presented the results of a questionnaire on the tendencies in Junior High curricula; the indications are that training in the separate subjects is still the rule, and that the movement towards combination had made no further gain. The discussion that followed was led by Robert La Follette of Ball State Teachers' College (Muncie, Indiana) and Albert J. Sanford (State Teachers' College, La Crosse, Wisconsin), and was particularly notable in drawing in a number of volunteer speakers, such as Paul Lutz of Washington, W. T. Morgan of Indiana, and R. H. Shryock of Duke University. It was devoted in the main to an interchange of ideas on the relationship and relative importance of the native ability of the teacher and of his training in the subject matter of his field, in professional matter, and in professionalized subject matter.

In general, the meetings of the American Historical Association devoted to the teaching of the social studies showed clearly that professional historians are greatly interested in this important phase of their field, that they are becoming more pedagogically conscious. More attention was paid to the problem of teacher-training than at previous meetings, and more sessions were given over to the problems of teaching than formerly.

A totally different field of knowledge was treated in the joint session of the History of Science Society and the American Historical Association in which William H. Welch, the President of the History of Science Society, was the chairman. Mary Louise Foster of the Department of Chemistry at Smith College reported on her study in Spain during the past year, where she worked on alchemy in the libraries of Seville, Madrid and Salamanca. Henry E. Sigerist of the Institute of the History of Medicine in Leipzig spoke on "Some Phases of the History of Medicine for the Layman." He emphasized the importance of the history of medicine as a part of general history. He spoke of the divisions of the history of medicine—the history of disease, the history of the physician's behavior, of therapy, and of medical ideas—and gave concrete instances of work done in each branch. His address was thought-stimulating for the historian as suggesting an important field of knowledge which must be covered before the history of any given period is complete. John F. Fulton of Yale University read a paper on "Robert Boyle and His Influence on Thought in the Seventeenth Century" in which he stressed the contribution of Boyle to the discovery of the composition of air and to the atomic theory of the structure of matter. Dr. Welch concluded the meeting with a highly entertaining account of the International Congress of the History of Science and Technology which had met in London the preceding summer.

The actual business of the Historical Association was transacted in the Council meetings and in the Annual Business Meeting held on Tuesday afternoon in the Minnesota Union, on the campus of the University of Minnesota. The reports of the Secretary and

the Treasurer were highly encouraging. Memorials of Henry B. Learned, of Edward Channing, and of Allan Johnson were read. An important change in the constitution was adopted; it is specified that there shall be a Board of Trustees, consisting of five members, without whose consent no change in the investments of the Association can be made. Officers were elected, and the recommendation of Toronto as the meeting place of the Association in 1932 was approved.

There was no lack of the social functions at which the personal contacts which are one of the pleasantest features of the Convention could be formed and renewed. The historians were guests at a reception and smoker at the Minneapolis Club on Monday night, tendered by the Committee on Local Arrangements. Tuesday noon, the members of all associations were the guests of the University of Minnesota at a luncheon in the Minnesota Union, where Guy Stanton Ford, Acting President of the University of Minnesota, extended the formal welcome of the University. The Trustees of the Minneapolis Institute of Arts were hosts to the Association at a reception in the Institute Tuesday afternoon.

The climax of the convention, as of every convention, was reached in the formal banquet at the Nicollet Hotel Tuesday evening, and the Presidential address. After his introduction by L. B. Shippee of the University of Minnesota, President Becker spoke on "Everyman His Own Historian." The address will be printed, as is customary, in the *American Historical Review* and so need not be summarized at length here. It was a brilliant reduction of history and the historical processes to their lowest terms and a discussion of the real function and aims of historical writing.

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Disarmament: From Versailles to Geneva

BY RUSSELL T. McNUTT, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, MUNCIE, INDIANA

I

Every great international conflict in modern times has been followed by a revulsion against the horrors of war and by a movement which has as its purpose the prevention of future conflicts. These movements have usually been characterized by the formation of "defensive alliances." A less prominent feature of some such enterprise has been an attempt on a small scale to limit armaments.¹

As the World War was the most gigantic struggle the world has ever known, so the peace movement in the post-war period has been the most definite, the best-organized and the most far-reaching program of its kind ever devised. While the international situation today is far from ideal, it may be said that this movement now has to its credit a number of concrete achievements, such as the organization of a League of Nations and the establishment of a Permanent Court of International Justice.

Another respect in which the present peace movement differs from those of previous times is the way in which it has taken hold of public opinion. While the statesmen have been busy with the drafting of

conventions and the consideration of protocols, the people of the various countries have quite generally come to accept the view that "war and civilization henceforth are incompatible" and that "If mankind does not end war, war will end mankind."²

The nations today, realizing that the next war would not be a war of armies but a war of peoples,³ are striving desperately to prevent a recurrence of the recent catastrophe. One phase of this movement has been the attempt to agree upon some scheme for disarmament.

It was generally agreed, even during the war, that the conclusion of peace would bring about a reduction of armaments. Such reduction "to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety" had been made the fourth of President Wilson's famous Fourteen Points, and, in the preamble to the Military, Naval and Clauses of the Treaty of Versailles, the Signatories declared that the purpose of disarming Germany was "to render possible the initiation of a general limitation of the armaments of all nations." Finally, the reduction of armaments was one of the tasks laid upon the League of Nations by the Covenant.⁴

II

There are two methods of approaching the problem of disarmament and both have been tried. One is the technical or direct method applied in the Naval Conferences, *i.e.*, plunging directly into a mathematical, gun-for-gun and ton-for-ton arrangement. This method is the more dramatic and apparently, at least until the present, the more successful. The second is the political or indirect method, which aims to provide a feeling of security by building up machinery for peaceful settlement of disputes and guarantees against aggression, before attempting reduction. The two great naval powers and, of course, Germany have favored the direct method according to the thesis that limitation of armaments is the most effective way of bringing about the much-needed sense of security. On the other hand, France and her continental allies, with their exposed frontiers and their large land forces, have demanded that security must precede disarmament.

It was to be expected that France should regard her position at the end of the World War as fraught with danger. Largely through the influence of President Wilson, she failed to obtain the Rhine frontier, which it was felt would be safe, but she made this concession with the understanding that the United States and Great Britain, both by specific agreement⁵ and through their obligations as members of the League, would guarantee "as against external aggression" her less well-secured boundary.

Needless to say, the failure of the United States Senate to approve the engagements entered into by Wilson at Paris dealt a severe blow to French hopes. Germany, it was true, was greatly weakened by her territorial losses and by the disarmament and reparation provisions of the treaty, but still she was not reduced to the innocuous rôle which France had desired to see her play. It is somewhat difficult for Americans, who have had no similar experiences, to appreciate the attitude of the French people toward the Germans. While the population of France is stationary, the numbers, wealth and power of her neighbor are constantly increasing and this same neighbor has invaded French territory twice within the memory of her older citizens. Whether this feeling is justified or not—and certainly large portions of the German people are nursing no designs against France—it plays a very real part in the thinking of Frenchmen.⁶

Disappointed in her attempt to obtain promises of British and American aid in case of attack by Germany, France immediately set about to secure her position on the continent by concluding a series of defensive agreements with Belgium, Poland and Czechoslovakia. Thus as a result of her own efforts she has come to be preëminent in Europe and will naturally resist any movement which might result in any diminution of her power and prestige. At the same time she has promoted the attempts of the League to provide sanctions and to increase the security of individual nations against aggression on the part of others.

III

In the Covenant of the League of Nations the connection between security and disarmament had been recognized, Article X being intended to provide security against aggression and Article VIII outlining the obligations of the League to effect reduction of armaments. It has already been noted that the rejection of the Treaty, and with it the Covenant, by the United States Senate so weakened the guarantee in Article X that France felt obliged to set about providing for her own security. Another example of the same spirit is found in the formation of the "Petite Entente."⁷

As soon as the League organs began to function, however, attention was turned to the problem of armaments. On May 9, 1920, the Council, pursuant to Article IX of the Covenant, established a Permanent Advisory Commission, whose duty it would be to advise the Council on armament questions. It was immediately evident that this commission, composed exclusively of military, naval and air officers representing the Government members of the Council, could make little headway in the desired direction. "It was as foolish to expect a disarmament convention from such a commission as a declaration of atheism from a commission of clergymen."⁸

The First Assembly, led by Lord Cecil, requested the Council to set up another commission "composed of persons possessing the requisite competence in matters of a political social and economic nature." This body, predominantly civilian and known as the Temporary Mixed Commission, continued to function until after the meeting of the Fifth Assembly, when it was succeeded by a Coördination Commission. A final change in the composition of the group in December, 1925, resulted in the formation of the Joint Commission consisting of two members each of the Economic, Financial and Transit Organizations, the Employers' Group and the Workers' Group of the Governing Body of the International Labor Office and four members competent to deal with problems relating to industry and transport.⁹

These bodies, acting under the general direction of the Assembly and the Council and aided by a special Disarmament Section of the League Secretariat, have undertaken to prepare the way for constructive action by a thorough study of all phases of the problem of armaments. Data relative to the subject have been collected and published in the *Armaments Year Book*, a veritable storehouse of apposite information.

The influence of France and her allies assured the adoption by the League of the Political or indirect method of approach to the disarmament problem. Hence League activity in this field resolved itself into a search for security.

The first concrete proposal, worked out by the Temporary Mixed Commission and adopted by the Fourth Assembly in September, 1923, was embodied in a Draft Treaty of Mutual Assistance. It contained two main features:¹⁰ (a) Member States of the League would guarantee the safety of any nation attacked; and (b) nations desiring to have this guarantee of

safety would have to disarm according to principles to be laid down by a disarmament conference. Aggressive war was condemned as an international crime, and in case of conflict the Council was to determine which State was the aggressor.

The Draft Treaty was approved in principle by France and by most of the other States composing the "security" school, but it received a death blow when, on July 5, 1924, it was rejected by the MacDonald Government of Great Britain.

When the Fifth Assembly convened two months later, the prime ministers of Great Britain and France (Mr. Ramsay MacDonald and M. Herriot) introduced a joint resolution which reopened the question of disarmament and security and at the same time affirmed the principle that security depended upon agreement to arbitrate, so that "the final leit-motif became Arbitration-Security-Disarmament."¹¹

Before the end of the session, the Assembly adopted unanimously a new draft treaty, the Protocol for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes. The Protocol differed from the earlier Draft Treaty in the emphasis placed upon arbitration. In the case of legal disputes the signatories were "to recognize as compulsory, *ipso facto* and without special agreement, the jurisdiction of the Permanent Court of International Justice," and it was also provided that disputes of any other nature must be submitted to arbitration. The signatories further agreed not to resort to war except in cases of aggression or when acting in agreement with the Council or the Assembly of the League. An aggressor was defined as any State "which resorts to war in violation of the undertakings contained in the Covenant or in the present Protocol."¹² The whole plan was made dependent upon the adoption of disarmament proposals to be drawn up by a conference called for this purpose as soon as a sufficient number of ratifications of the Protocol had been received.

The Protocol, like the Draft Treaty, failed of approval by the States not in danger of aggression, on the ground that it increased unduly their international obligations. It was the attitude of Great Britain, then under a Conservative Government, that spelled defeat for this most ambitious project. The Baldwin Government considered the making of special agreements to meet special needs as a more satisfactory method of supplementing the Covenant.

Such a regional agreement was under consideration and provided the one ray of hope, at the time that the Sixth Assembly finally abandoned the effort to put the Protocol into effect. On February 9, 1925 the German Government had made a proposal for "a pact expressly guaranteeing the present territorial status on the Rhine."¹³ The subsequent negotiations led to the conferences in October, 1925 at Locarno, where, far removed from the familiar scenes of the Quai d'Orsay, the Wilhelmstrasse and Downing Street, the agreements forming the "Peace of Locarno" were made. In the following year Germany was admitted to the League and, despite the failure of concerted efforts to provide security, the "spirit of Locarno" began to

permeate European politics and some progress was evident in allaying the fears and hatred born of the recent conflict.

IV

While the League of Nations was striving vainly to provide that confidence in the maintenance of peace that was regarded as an indispensable prerequisite for disarmament, the naval powers, led by the United States, were applying the direct method to the problem of naval armaments, and with a certain degree of success.

In November, 1921, upon the invitation of the United States Government, representatives of nine countries met at Washington for consideration of armaments and problems of the Pacific and the Far East. The outstanding achievement of the Conference was a Five-Power Naval Treaty establishing a naval building holiday and a national ratio in shipbuilding. The ratio, which would be reached by 1931, was to be 5-5-3 for Great Britain, the United States and Japan, with a figure of 1.67 for France and Italy. This agreement applied only to capital ships, i.e., ships of over 10,000 tons displacement or which carried guns of caliber exceeding eight inches. The United States and Great Britain were allowed 525,000 tons each, while Japan's limit was 315,000 tons. This involved the scrapping of seventy ships, built or projected, with a total tonnage of about 1,650,000 tons. Aircraft carriers also were limited, but no agreement could be reached in regard to the other categories of vessels. The treaty was to remain in force until 1936.

Although it may be said that the direct method was used in this conference, the element of security was not left out of consideration. Before the Naval Treaty was signed, the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan concluded a Four-Power Treaty relating to insular possessions in the Pacific. The signatories pledged (1) to respect one another's possessions in this region, and (2) to "confer" in case a crisis should arise between any two signatories or in case the rights of any signatory power in this region should be threatened by an outside nation.

Critics of the Conference found much evidence—in the failure to prohibit or limit submarines and to limit light cruisers and aircraft—to support their view that the effort had been unsuccessful. They also pointed out that the type of vessel which was limited, the large cumbersome battleship, was already rapidly becoming obsolete.

On the other hand, there is much that might be said in support of the contention that the Conference had produced valuable results. "The fact must not be forgotten that for the first time in history it proved possible to arrive at an agreement on ratios for the limitation and reduction of armaments among competing nations."¹⁴ There was a temporary cessation of rivalry in naval building, although it later became evident that competitive building had only been shifted from capital ships to the cruiser class. As between the two great naval powers, perhaps the most significant fact to be noted was that Great Britain had partially renounced the naval supremacy held

since the days of Queen Elizabeth, by admitting the United States to equality in great battleships. It would be well to bear in mind that in 1916 the United States had embarked upon a program of naval building which in less than ten years would have given her control of the seas.

Another noteworthy achievement was the stabilization of affairs in the Pacific. The expression was current in this country and abroad, on the eve of the Washington Conference: "The next war will be in the Pacific."¹⁵ After the conference little was heard of the possibility of a war between the United States and Japan.

A most unfortunate circumstance growing out of the Conference was a misunderstanding with France, which not only accounted in large measure for the meagre results achieved but was to have its effect in the later development of the movement for limitation and reduction of armaments.¹⁶

V

The five years following the Washington Conference witnessed little progress toward the goal of armament reduction. It was during this time that the efforts of the League resulted in the elaboration of the Draft Treaty of Mutual Assistance and the Protocol for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes, only to have both fail of adoption.

A few attempts modeled somewhat after the Washington Conference were made in the years immediately following. In 1922 the Soviet Government issued invitations to the neighboring States of Poland, Finland, Esthonia, Latvia and Lithuania to a conference at Moscow in December of that year, but due to the suspicion with which the Baltic republics regarded Russia the conference was a complete failure.

More successful, but of relatively little importance in world affairs, was the conference of the five Central American States held in Washington from December 4, 1922 to February 7, 1923. A convention was signed which limited but did not reduce the armaments of these States.

The League of Nations summoned a conference at Rome in 1924 to secure "the extension to the rest of the world of the principles of the Washington Naval Conference." The complete failure of this effort was due to the fact that it was a meeting of experts with no authority to discuss the political aspects of the problem and to the demand of Russia that she be allowed the rank of a Great Power on both land and sea.¹⁷

The Sixth Assembly (1925) requested the Council to undertake a preparatory study in preparation for a Conference for the Reduction and Limitation of Armaments. The Council, accordingly, established, on September 26, 1925, the Preparatory Commission for the Disarmament Conference, consisting of representatives of the States members of the Council and certain other States, members and non-members of the League, having a special interest in the problem of armaments. The non-members which have been represented on the Commission are the United

States, Turkey and the Soviet Union. It was to be the task of this Commission to clear up certain technical difficulties so that some measure of success might be expected from a diplomatic conference which would be called as soon as the general international situation warranted.

The setting up of the Preparatory Commission marked the beginning of a second phase of the disarmament movement. The first phase had been characterized by the failure of the League's security efforts and by the limited success of the Washington Conference. The second phase of the movement was marked by official coöperation between the United States and the League on the problem of armaments and also by continued effort through Naval Conferences to extend to other types of naval vessels the principle of the Washington agreement.

The discussions in the Preparatory Commission threw into bold relief the essential differences in the way the various nations view the problem of armaments. Certain European States are vitally interested in both land and naval armaments; others depend wholly or largely upon land forces; while one—Great Britain—is essentially a naval power. The United States, being far removed geographically from European and Asiatic rivalries and conflicts, but at the same time responsible for protecting outlying possessions and a vast overseas trade, is primarily interested in her fleet.

Two definite groups soon became apparent among the nations represented on the Commission. One group, led by France and including other continental powers having the conscription system, contended that any limitation agreement must be general, as land, sea and air forces were interdependent, while the United States and Great Britain held that naval armaments might be considered separately. The two latter powers also maintained that only military and naval forces and material should be considered, but France contended that resources, industries and strategic advantages should be taken into account as forming a part of the *potential de guerre*. In respect to naval armament, France advocated total or global limitation, whereas Great Britain and the United States in general favored limitation by categories. And, finally, Great Britain favored and France opposed the consideration of reservists (*i.e.*, men trained under the universal military training system and subject to call by the government) in calculating military man power.

These differences became most pronounced at the third session of the Preparatory Commission in March-April, 1927, when a draft convention was under consideration. When the session adjourned, the differences appeared to have been aggravated rather than removed or minimized.

VI

A further attempt to deal with the problem of naval armaments was made in the summer of 1927. On February 10 of that year President Coolidge announced his proposal for another Five-Power Conference to extend the ratio system employed by the Washington Conference to the other categories of

fighting vessels. The fact that only naval armaments would be dealt with and that the problem of "security" would be left out of consideration accounted for the French rejection of the invitation to the conference. Italy also declined to be represented officially. If we add to these circumstances the fact that no adequate preparation had been made for such a meeting, the total failure of the Geneva Conference of 1927 is easily understood.

Underlying this failure was the whole question of "freedom of the seas." Because of her geographical position and her far-flung empire, Great Britain has attempted to control the seas and has advocated the maximum of belligerent rights in case of conflict. The United States, on the other hand, has contended for the full measure of neutral rights. As to technical difficulties, the bone of contention was the method of limiting cruisers. The United States desired to have a total or global tonnage assigned to this class of ships, expecting to use a large portion of this allotment in 10,000 ton cruisers with eight inch guns (the maximum tonnage and armament allowed to cruisers by the Washington agreement). Great Britain advocated a division of total cruiser tonnage in such a way as to limit the number of larger vessels, for which she had relatively less need.

As a result of the breakdown of the Geneva Conference, President Coolidge went over to the great-navy camp and commended to Congress the greatest naval building program ever framed in America. This program was subsequently much reduced, but since agreement with Great Britain appeared out of the question, nothing seemed to remain but to build a navy superior to Britain's. In spite of declarations of statesmen in both England and America that war between these two people was "unthinkable," the logic of events seemed to point directly toward such a conflict.

The relations between the two English-speaking nations was made still more strained by the announcement, on June 30, 1928, of an Anglo-French naval "compromise."¹⁸ The full text of the negotiations was not published until October and in the meantime much misunderstanding developed. Certain sections of the French press spoke of a new "entente" and of the pooling of the French and British navies for common defense.¹⁹ This appeared to be a denial of the spirit of Locarno and of the League and a return to the pre-war system of special alliances and ententes. The essence of the agreement was that Great Britain withdrew her opposition to the French stand in respect to the reservists and in return France had accepted the British principle of naval limitation by categories. The "compromise," if adopted by the other countries concerned, would mean that the Disarmament Conference would deal only with large submarines and large cruisers, *i.e.*, the type in which the United States was most interested. This abortive agreement, to which the government of the United States gave unqualified disapproval, had been intended to further the work of the Preparatory Commission, but instead it only accentuated the feeling in the

United States that agreement with Great Britain was impossible and thus facilitated the passage of the Cruiser Bill early in 1929.

VII

The year 1928 witnessed another event which was to have a pronounced effect upon the movement for arms reduction. This was the signing of the Pact of Paris on August 27. Much has been said as to the meaning and value, or lack of value, to be attached to this nobly-conceived effort. It is true that the reservations or explanations offered by the various signatories seemed to vitiate the agreement itself, but the real force of the Pact lies in its moral effect upon public opinion in the various countries, and governments are feeling the need of conducting their affairs in harmony with the spirit of their solemn declaration "that they condemn recourse to war for the solution of international controversies, and renounce it as an instrument of national policy in their relations with one another."

When the Eighth Assembly met, the outlook for disarmament was discouraging. The last session of the Preparatory Commission had ended in a deadlock and the Geneva Naval Conference had been a complete failure. It was evident that the direct method was not producing results. The Assembly reviewed the work of the Preparatory Commission and decided that a Committee on Arbitration and Security should be established, whose duty it would be to consider "measures capable of giving all states the guaranties of arbitration and security necessary to enable them to fix the level of their armaments at the lowest possible figures in an international disarmament agreement."²⁰

This Committee reported to the Ninth Assembly a series of draft conventions. The result was the perfection of a General Act for the pacific settlement of international disputes and other model conventions, which the Assembly invited all States to accept. The Committee also appealed to the States to accept the Optional Clause of the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice, by which States bind themselves to submit all disputes of a legal character to the Court.²¹

VIII

The Preparatory Commission resumed its work after the deadlock of April, 1927, and by the end of the fifth session had drawn up a draft convention which, although "containing almost more of disagreement than agreement," might serve as a basis for further discussion.

On April 22, 1929, during the sixth session of the Commission, Mr. Hugh Gibson, the American representative, surprised Geneva and put new life into the negotiations by declaring that the United States was ready not only to limit armaments but substantially to reduce them. He then elaborated the "yardstick" plan by which the relative strength of navies could be measured. An index number would be applied to each vessel, taking into account such items as tonnage, speed, age, gun strength, cruising radius, etc. At the earliest possible opportunity the new administration at

Washington had substituted for the inflexible Coolidge thesis of global tonnage a practical basis of agreement between the United States and Great Britain.

Negotiations, conducted by the newly appointed Ambassador Dawes and Prime Minister MacDonald, progressed rapidly, and on July 24, the day on which President Hoover proclaimed the Paris Pact, the Premier announced in the House of Commons that his government was suspending naval construction then in progress and canceling all work on the 1929 building program until the autumn. He announced further that he expected to make a few points yet unsettled the subject of personal discussion with Mr. Hoover sometime in October. The basis of the agreement was to be parity or equality between the two States in all classes of warships.

The British gesture was answered by a suspension of plans for naval construction in the United States. The Prime Minister made his projected visit and was most cordially received. The basis of agreement had already been reached, but the visit to Washington and to the President's fishing camp did much to restore cordial relations between the two countries.

On October 7, invitations were issued for a Five-Power Naval Conference to be held in London in January. After three months of negotiations, a treaty was signed, applying in part to all five powers and in part to only the three leading naval powers. The Italian demand for parity with France and the latter's refusal to accept this principle prevented a Five-Power Treaty for limitation of armaments.

The United States, Great Britain and Japan declared a naval holiday on capital ship construction until 1936. This means that the replacements authorized under the Washington Treaty will not be made. Italy and France were to be allowed to make the replacements specified in the earlier agreement.

The cruiser question was settled by allowing the United States eighteen 10,000 ton cruisers and Great Britain fifteen, while the latter was conceded 192,200 tons of smaller cruisers to 143,500 tons for the United States. This allows the United States to have her greater number of large cruisers and at the same time establishes approximate parity.²²

A provision intended to "humanize" the use of the submarine was included in the Treaty. This provision is to be permanent; the remainder of the agreement is to be reconsidered in 1935, unless this is rendered unnecessary by a general agreement before that date, as the limitations are to be in effect only until the end of the year 1936.

The results of the conference were somewhat disappointing. The divergent views of France and Italy were left unreconciled,²³ the submarine was not outlawed and the question of freedom of the seas was not settled. Some economies were effected, but the United States will expend during a six-year period a sum estimated at two billion dollars, if she is actually to achieve the parity authorized. Even though reduction was not attained, the rivalry of the three greatest naval Powers, with its accompaniment of fear, has been put to an end, at least for the present.

IX

It has been pointed out that, in imposing upon Germany the disarmament provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, the signatories assured her that this was to be the first step in "the initiation of a general limitation of the armaments of all nations."

Ever since the Treaty went into effect, Germany has been reminding the Powers of their promise. Her more recent reminders have been coupled with the intimation that unless action is taken Germany may consider that the disarmament provisions of the Treaty are no longer binding upon her. Speaking before the Assembly of the League on September 12, 1931, Dr. Curtius said that Germany could not accept a state of armed power based upon two different sets of weights and measures. He implied that unless actual disarmament is achieved it would not be practical for any voice to restrain his country from leaving the League.²⁴

By the time the Eleventh Assembly met, the opinion had become current that the League could not, without bringing incalculable harm to its own prestige, longer delay the calling of the Disarmament Conference. The "security" school was, of course, dissatisfied with the results achieved in the way of guarantees, but the British Foreign Minister, Arthur Henderson, represented the attitude of many States when he served a sort of ultimatum, declaring that, until something actually was done in the matter of disarmament, Great Britain would take no further steps in the extension of the security program.²⁵

In January, 1931, the Council set February 2, 1932 as the date for the meeting of the Disarmament Conference. After some consideration as to whether the housing facilities were adequate, it was decided to hold the Conference at Geneva. It is with both hope and fear, not unmixed with generous portions of cynicism and indifference, that the peoples of the world are looking forward to the time of the meeting.

The basis for discussion will be the Draft Treaty worked out by the Preparatory Commission. The skeleton treaty has six divisions which have been summarized as follows:²⁶

1. *Personnel*.—The total numbers of land, sea, and air effectives (officers, men, and maximum length of conscript service for each country) are to be fixed.

2. *Material*.—*Land material* is to be limited by fixing maximum annual expenditure for it; *naval material* is to be limited both as regards expenditure and quantity—both global and category tonnage limits are to be fixed, with a few minor transfer privileges for surface tonnage of small fleets; *airplanes* are to be limited in number and horsepower, but air expenditure is not.

3. *Budgetary Expenditures*.—The annual expenditure for land, sea, and air forces is to be limited.

4. *Exchange of Information*.—Provision is made for exchange of detailed information on home and overseas personnel, airplanes, and what merchant ships are prepared to carry six-inch guns; also the expenditure for small arms, artillery, and tanks.

5. *Chemical Arms*.—Poison gas and bacteria are to be banned in warfare.

6. *Miscellaneous*.—A permanent disarmament commission is to be established to collect and disseminate information, supervise the enforcement of the treaty, meet annually, and report to the Council of the League of Nations. There is

a safeguard clause for a signatory whose security is menaced, and continuity is assured by a provision for re-examination of the armament situation by a world conference at stated intervals.

The United States has consistently opposed budgetary limitation, but it now appears that this stand may be modified sufficiently that it will not obstruct the work of the Conference.

The Italian delegation to the Twelfth Assembly proposed an armament truce for one year. This suggestion, in a somewhat "denatured" form was incorporated in an Assembly resolution, and in November the truce was declared in effect.

The business situation now affecting all countries has resulted in adding to the moral obligation to disarm and to the necessity for limitation as a security measure a third element which hitherto has not been so prominent—the economy argument.

The same features that have characterized the disarmament movement throughout will be in evidence at the Conference. There will be France and her allies demanding security, while the United States and Great Britain, with most of the other countries, will be urging disarmament as a means of providing security and as a measure of economy.

The experience of twelve years has shown by what slow and painful steps such a great object must be accomplished. Too much must not be expected from the Conference. At best, it can only result in another step in the desired direction. Complete failure at this stage would be fatal. In the words of Premier Mussolini:²⁷ "Not only the existence of the League of Nations, but the fate of mankind is at stake."²⁸

¹ Unsuccessful attempts of this nature were made after the Seven Years' War and also following the Congress of Vienna. Hans Wehberg, *Limitation of Armaments* (1921), pp. 5, 7-8.

Better known are the efforts, also unsuccessful, to limit armaments at the Hague Conferences of 1899 and 1907.

Shortly before the World War, British statesmen proposed to Germany a naval holiday and the establishment of a 16:10 ratio, but nothing came of the suggestion. *Ibid.*, Ch. IX.

The only examples of successful efforts along this line were the Rush-Bagot Treaty (1817) between the United States and Great Britain, limiting the number of warships on the Great Lakes, and the convention between Argentina and Chile (1902) concerning their fleets. *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9, 23-25.

² G. L. Dickinson, *War, Its Nature, Cause and Cure* (1925), pp. 7, 11.

³ John Bassett Moore, former judge of the Permanent Court of International Justice, in his book, *International Law and Some Current Illusions*, declares that in the World War, which "is to be taken as the type of future wars, . . . the distinction between combatants and non-combatants . . . lost its meaning and ceased to be ascertainable." Quoted in E. K. Fradkin, "Chemical Warfare—Its Possibilities and Probabilities" in *International Conciliation*, No. 248, p. 114.

⁴ Article VIII of the Covenant (Sec. 1) reads: "The Members of the League recognize that the maintenance of peace requires the reduction of national armaments to the lowest point consistent with national safety and the enforcement by common action of international obligations."

The same article (Sec. 2-4) provides that the Council, "taking account of the geographical situation and circumstances of each State, shall formulate plans for such reduction"; that the plans "shall be subject to reconsideration and revision at least every ten years"; and that after such plans "shall have been adopted by the several Governments, the limits of armaments therein fixed shall not be exceeded

without the concurrence of the Council." The Members of the League further "undertake to interchange full and frank information as to the scale of their armaments, their military, naval and air programs and the condition of such of their industries as are adaptable to warlike purposes."

⁵ On June 28, 1919, when the signatures were attached to the Treaty at Versailles, two agreements providing for immediate assistance to France "in the event of any unprovoked movement of aggression against her being made by Germany" were signed simultaneously by representatives of the United States and Great Britain. (Texts in *Sen. Doc. No. 63*, 66th Cong., 1st sess., pp. 4-15.)

As the Franco-American agreement was a corollary to the Peace Treaty, the rejection of the latter by the Senate meant the death of the plan to have the two great English-speaking nations underwrite French security, for the adhesion of Great Britain to the agreement had been made contingent upon that of the United States.

⁶ For an excellent appraisal of the idea, that security plays in the every day life of the French people see S. P. Duggan, "French Security" in *Yale Review*, Autumn, 1931.

⁷ The defensive agreements involving Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Rumania to maintain the *status quo* in central Europe.

⁸ Salvador de Madariaga, *Disarmament* (1929), p. 91. The author of this valuable work, now Spanish Ambassador to the United States, was for five years Chief of the Disarmament Section of the League of Nations Secretariat.

The report to the Council providing for the creation of the above-mentioned Commission was presented by the French Representative, M. Léon Bourgeois. "The choice of rapporteur was in itself significant. Disarmament questions were to pass through the mill of French ideas and tendencies before they were discussed by the Council." *Ibid.*, p. 90.

⁹ *Handbook of the League of Nations Since 1920*. World Peace Foundation (1930), p. 246.

¹⁰ *Eleven Year Review of the League of Nations*, League of Nations Association (1930), p. 142.

¹¹ de Madariaga, *op. cit.*, p. 124.

¹² Text in World Peace Foundation Pamphlets, Vol. VII, pp. 543-553. For discussion see P. J. N. Baker, *The Geneva Protocol* (1925), D. H. Miller, *The Geneva Protocol* (1925).

¹³ For text of the German memorandum see Karl Strupp, *Das Werk von Locarno* (1926), pp. 35-37.

¹⁴ *Survey of American Foreign Relations*, 1928, Council on Foreign Relations (1928), p. 529.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 521.

¹⁶ The French, it appears, had believed that the real purpose of the conference was to marshal the forces of the white world "for an inevitable conflict with the yellow races." They were expecting to obtain large compensations for their support against Japan, perhaps the acceptance of the security pact signed by Wilson at Versailles but rejected by the Senate. *Ibid.*, pp. 531-533.

¹⁷ *Survey of American Foreign Relations*, 1928, p. 535.

¹⁸ *London Times*, July 31, 1928.

¹⁹ *Spectator*, Sept. 8, 1928, p. 285.

²⁰ *Handbook of the League of Nations Since 1920*, p. 264.

²¹ By the end of the Ninth Assembly (1928), forty-two States had accepted the Optional Clause. *Ibid.*, p. 269. A number of States, including France and Great Britain, have accepted the General Act.

²² Each of the two Powers has the option of duplicating the cruiser fleet of the other. Japan was allowed a total cruiser tonnage of 208,850.

²³ Negotiations have been under way to remove these difficulties, and, although it was announced early in 1931 that agreement had been reached, a number of points still remain unsettled.

²⁴ George Glasgow, "Germany, The Hague and Disarmament" in *Contemporary Review*, Oct. 1931, p. 524.

²⁵ J. W. Terry, in *League of Nations Chronicle*, March, 1931.

²⁶ *Eleven Year Review of the League of Nations*, p. 151.

²⁷ Quoted in *Disarmament*, The Disarmament Information Committee at Geneva, July, 1931, p. 5.

²⁸ The completed text of the draft convention for the Disarmament Conference is printed in *International Conciliation*, No. 275, December, 1931.

George Washington in Recent Biographies

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AN OLDER BIOGRAPHY

Probably until the end of time, or at least until this nation shall have passed into history, the literary struggles between the deifiers of Washington and the "debunkers" will continue.

If there are those who think that the "debunking" is a recently developed interest in biographers, of Washington at least, they should remind themselves of the attacks on him in newspaper and pamphlet that continued during almost the whole of his public career. As time went by, his fellow-countrymen, far from being more and more convinced of the greatness of Washington, became more and more sharply divided into those who could see no fault in their leader, and those who, like Bache, could write on the retirement of Washington from the presidency: "The man who is the source of all the misfortunes of our country is this day reduced to a level with his fellow citizens, and is no longer possessed of power to multiply evils upon the United States."

Parson Weems' *Life of Washington* was one of the few books that Abraham Lincoln read in his youth. In later years, "he contended when the question of the real character of the first president was brought up, that it was wise to regard him as a god-like being, heroic in nature and deed, as Weems did, than to contend that he was only a man, who, if wise and good, did make mistakes and indulge in follies, like other men."¹

In this article the writer attempts to discuss a number of the more recently written biographies of Washington, and to give some analysis of the varying points of view and attitudes of the authors. "Recent" is interpreted as being within the last five years.

In general there are two noticeable trends to recent biographies of Washington. First, there is a very evident effort made to get at the exact facts in regard to any specific incident or episode in his career. While the interpretation of what is found often varies widely, there is usually meticulous care used in citing the exact spot where the evidence was found, either in foot notes or in the casual attributions in the text itself.

Secondly, while general biography continues to issue at intervals, there is a recent tendency for writers to devote themselves to some particular phase of Washington's career. Thus we have *Washington as a Business Man*, *Washington, the Commander-in-Chief*, *The Family Life of Washington*, and others of similar narrowness of scope. It is interesting to note the difficulties found by writers in confining themselves to their chosen field even if we allow very wide limits to it. They are constantly running off into a general biography, or a general historical background. The reader can almost feel the pull of the rein, as the author brings his run-away thoughts to a halt, and returns to his proper road.

¹ Tarbell: *Early Life of Lincoln*, p. 70.

Perhaps, as a sort of background, we may speak briefly of the biography of Professor Thayer. In contrast to more recent works (Thayer's book was published in 1921), there is a weight of statement based on the author's own opinion, well-founded no doubt, but nevertheless leaving the reader in a somewhat uncertain attitude of mind. Sometimes one feels that, in the desire to magnify the virtues of Washington, others may hardly be given exact justice. He speaks of Gen. Charles Lee as being a "glib" person. This does not appear to have been one of the noticeable faults of General Lee. On the other hand his opinion of Cornwallis is highly favorable, and he speaks of the attempted withdrawal of the British army from Yorktown as "the last gallantry of a brave soldier." In this opinion he agrees with Fay's estimate of Cornwallis. Great moment is made of the strong differences existing in the colonies in order to emphasize the success of Washington in holding them together for the attainment of independence. Once in a while we get a quotation that gives an interesting sidelight. It is noted that in his diary for June 6, 1785, Washington writes that he "dined alone with Mrs. Washington, the first instance since my retirement from public life." What a picture that gives us of the social life at Mt. Vernon during the first two years after resigning his commission as Commander-in-Chief!

We frequently encounter such expressions as "no doubt," "probably," "it is probable," "he (meaning Washington) must have thought," "we may believe," and others of like import. If there was excellent foundation for the use of these expressions in the mind of the author, to the reader it is somewhat disconcerting to feel that he is getting rather a philosophy of Washington than a biography.

In some places we can test the accuracy of these assumptions. Thayer says that there were frequent balls and parties at Mt. Vernon, as well as hunt balls, which Washington particularly enjoyed. Van Dyke, in his biography, has taken the trouble to do some counting, and says that during seven years, 1768-1775, during which Washington kept a continuous record of "Where and how my time is spent," he mentions no such affairs as having taken place at Mt. Vernon, and speaks of attending a total of only sixteen held elsewhere; two and a fraction a year, which hardly seems frequent, even if they had been at Mt. Vernon.

The last third of the book, is chiefly occupied with a discussion of the Constitution, Hamilton's plan, and other phases of our history with only casual and infrequent mention of Washington. Our author, though in his preface speaking disparagingly of both Weems and Sparks, quotes frequently from the latter. In summing up, Professor Thayer points out as distinguishing features of Washington's career, his courage; his

Fabian policy during the Revolutionary War in refusing to be drawn into a perhaps fatal encounter with the British; the fact that he was the most "actual" statesman of the time; and his character in general. Thayer often speaks of Washington's taciturnity. Indeed all of his biographers have some difficulty in accounting for the universal appreciation of Washington's abilities in the face of his habitual silence.

A NOVELIST AS BIOGRAPHER

In 1926, patriotic societies, hero-worshippers, and historians were startled by the appearance of a new type of biography of Washington by Rupert Hughes, who up to then had been chiefly known as a novelist. Three volumes have appeared. Vol. 1, *George Washington, The Human Being and Hero*, covers the years 1732-1762. Vol. 2, *The Rebel and the Patriot*, includes the years from the close of the French and Indian War, to the surrender of Burgoyne, 1762-1777. Vol. 3, *The Savior of the States*, covers the period from Saratoga to Yorktown, 1777-1781. With so many of the most important years of Washington's life not included in these volumes, it is supposed that at least one additional and closing volume may be in preparation. It is difficult to find places where our author describes Washington as a hero, unless it is by his implied ability to rise above the social and other conditions in Virginia during his youth, in addition to his ability to subdue or cover up the almost innumerable unpleasant incidents that were due to his failings of disposition and conduct. Almost every statement is backed up by quotations from diary, or letter, or public record. The book is an interesting example of how half the truth can come to be suspiciously close to a whole lie.

The book begins with a rather nasty picture of Virginia plantation society at the time of Washington's birth. The author quotes Professor Beard on the large relative number of bond servants, and intimates that this large group very unfavorably affected the tone of Virginia society. All the evidence we have is that this implication is incorrect. There is no more ground for this belief than that the presence of similar servile groups in Athens lowered the tone of aristocratic Greek society. Still, it may be of interest to know that "the number of bond servants, exceeded the original 20,000 Puritans, the yeomen, the Virginia gentlemen, and the Huguenots combined,"—to say nothing of the slaves. Our author quotes Bancroft's statement, that he (Bancroft) "dared not publish the enormous number of felons and lesser criminals sent to Virginia" for fear of the resentment of the present F.F.V.'s. The book states bluntly that Washington was in love with Sallie Fairfax, the wife of his closest friend, and by innuendo that Washington was, therefore, considerably less than a gentleman. Truly enough, there is much evidence to justify this conclusion, but the evidence is entirely epistolary, and even if true, there is no evidence of the affair's having gone any deeper than veiled expressions of sentiment.

Hughes makes much of Washington's campaign at Fort Necessity and belittles Washington's military

capacity, as indeed, do a number of other writers, notably Woodward in his book, *George Washington, the Man and the Image*. In the present work Washington is accused of having broken his parole to the French commander, Villiers, according to the terms of the articles under which Washington surrendered at Ft. Necessity. First, in that he did not endeavor to secure the release of the prisoners held by Virginia, who had been captured at the time of the skirmish with the small force of Jumonville, in which the latter was killed; and, second, in that he pledged himself not to return within a year to the lands claimed by the French. The evidence is that Washington was pledged not to make any military construction i.e. forts, a pledge which he kept, and that he did all he could to get the French prisoners released.

Washington had as an interpreter one Van Bamm who apparently knew little of the French language, while Washington knew none. One of the clauses in the capitulation speaks of "the assassination" of Jumonville, on the basis that the latter's company was a sort of legation similar to that of Washington and his companions to Fort Le Boeuf. The killing of the leader of such a group, if known to be such, would be, in plain language, murder. In spite of Washington's evidence that the group of French had acted as a scouting or spying party and not as a legation, and in spite of his vehement denials that he knew that such a statement was contained in the articles of capitulation which he signed, and in spite of the fact that there seems to have been several copies of the capitulation, in one of which the accusation seems not to have appeared, the author assumes, by implication, Washington's guilt. It should be said however that the evidence is fairly presented so that the reader is enabled to draw his own conclusions, if he wishes. The danger lies in the casual perusal which would lead the reader into the belief that the author's judgments were necessarily maintained by the evidence.

The author seems so full of his desire to point out the mistakes and lackings of Washington that he unconsciously perhaps leans too far the other way from fairness of presentation. The one redeeming feature is that full credit is given Washington for his qualities of courage and determination. It should also be said that on the basis of our author's selection of material, the quotations amply justify many of his conclusions. He has pointed out to the most minute detail, both by cited proof and by implication, all of Washington's deficiencies of personality and ability, and he has left out much that would account for the esteem in which Washington was held, both then and later, by all who came in contact with him. One gets the impression that while Hughes presents the facts, they are frequently the unpleasant facts, and that, so to speak, his hand has been overplayed. The reader feels that he wants to know more of those truths about Washington that cause him to be remembered, and not so many of those that must have had a negative influence on his career. It may be that "war psychology" of some sort is a motive in this emphasis on the unlovely, and on the ironical side of hero-worship.

WOODWARD'S "THE IMAGE AND THE MAN"

Another biography of Washington which appeared the same year as Hughes', is *George Washington, the Image and the Man*, by W. E. Woodward. In style it tends to be flippant, satiric, and cynical, resembling Hughes in its emphasis on the failings of Washington rather than on his accomplishments, but gives, we think, a much fairer picture. In fact, if one can keep out of mind the sarcastic comments which have the effect of belittling even facts that are most obviously to Washington's credit, this story of Washington's life is a satisfactory one. Woodward is in full sympathy with the admiration and esteem in which Washington is held, but finds it difficult to account for them in the face of the evidence which he seems to find of Washington's military incapacities and lackings in personality. However, his summary of Washington's character is sufficient to account for what seems to be, according to the evidence of the work, an almost unexplainable hero-worship.

Our author points out that Washington was comparatively illiterate, but emphasizes his business acumen in having by the time he was twenty-one acquired 1558 acres, all the result of his own labors. He never claimed from his mother the small inheritance of land left him by his father.

Woodward sees in Washington the man of action and a dealer in material things. He points out that Washington never wrote out his ideas in logical sequence as did Lincoln and Jefferson. His counting was limited to the things he possessed or which bore some relation to his possessions. On this point Woodward remarks that the diaries "are as devoid of introspection as a furniture catalogue." (In strong contrast to the "man of action" idea, Little, in his biography, quotes much in the endeavor to prove the opposite.) The author claims that Washington's chief impulse to carry Governor Dinwiddie's message was vanity. He points out that the position of Fort Necessity was a military error that any man who had any military ideas whatsoever would have avoided.

Woodward thinks that Washington, if he had lived today, would have been a captain of industry. He had the same impetuous drive for results and the same keen mind for gain, and how it may be had, that our great industrialists of today have; "no ideas, no languages, nothing but what can I do with what I have,"—the executive type of mind.

Like most of the newer biographies the author makes little of Washington's reverence for his mother. He deferred very little to her wishes; on occasion his letters to her were almost rude. Often the provocation was great. While Washington was with Braddock in the wilds of western Pennsylvania she wrote to him asking him to get her some good butter and a Dutch servant. Washington's reply was curt and expressive of exactly the way he felt about the request.

Washington's marriage with Martha Custis was, in Woodward's opinion, a marriage for position. He "had been one of the best people all along. By marrying Martha Custis he became one of the very best people," presumably because of the fortune she brought him.

In discussing the question as to whether Washington married for money or not, Woodward says; "In trying to handle the subject in a manner which would be satisfactory to truth, as well as to the Daughters of the American Revolution, historians have performed some feats of literary subtlety which should be studied by those interested in the flexibility of words."

Here and there we find strikingly descriptive paragraphs. "Colonial civilization as a whole was harsh, shrill, and defiant. It was strikingly bare of graciousness, of charm—even of good manners—but it was not lacking in lurid drama or in a strain of hard fibred romance." And this is a description of the society in which Washington lived!

As he goes along our author gets into history and has thirty pages or so about Puritans, Indians, Jonathan Edwards, and Benjamin Franklin, with a couple of interspersed pages about Washington. He uses Washington's liquor bill, spent to aid his election as burgess, as a hook on which to hang a lengthy but diverting account of colonial drinking habits.

In criticising other biographers he calls attention to the life by Lodge. He says, "Lodge conceals the fact that Washington bought and sold slaves by quoting one Parkinson as saying 'Washington never bought or sold slaves.' Lodge knew Parkinson was in error, but didn't feel obliged to say so." Woodward claims that even in the heat of the Revolution, Washington "was simply a conservative land-owner fighting for independence from Great Britain, and for nothing else."

"Washington possessed only ordinary intellectual ability. The myth making process which has given him the attributes of a modern Solomon began with the Federalists in 1790. . . . He was the god of their party, and . . . their party had to stand or fall on Washington's reputation for unimpeachable wisdom." "The keynote of his personality was character. He was a perfect pattern of will and self-discipline. He possessed fortitude, steadfastness, dignity, courage, honesty, and self-respect." In contrast to others Woodward says, "Cornwallis' heart was like water," and that Lee was right and Washington wrong at Monmouth. "It is impossible to write his biography without writing history—not because he made history but because history made him."

This is enough of Woodward's book but a couple more of his characteristic expressions must be quoted:

"Smugglers occupied a position in colonial life that was similar to that of the better class of bootleggers today." The campaign around New York was "A prize ring contest in which both gladiators were slow and dull."

WASHINGTON'S FAMILY LIFE

Quite different from the two books just considered is Moore's *Family Life of Washington*. This was published in the same year as the two biographies just discussed, but it would be difficult to imagine a book more unlike them in plan. In the first place the title is not descriptive of the actual work. "The Lives of Washington's Family," while still not exact, would be a much better one.

The book opens with a description of a present-day journey to Wakefield, Washington's birthplace, and discourses on the roads, the little towns, and the notable estates encountered on the way. In discussing Washington's English ancestry, the author tells us that the clergyman, Lawrence Washington, died in 1652 and, that his wife survived him two years, and that after the Restoration she enjoyed one-fifth of the profits and tithes of the living of which her husband had been deprived. Since the Restoration took place in 1660, it is difficult to see how anyone who died in 1654 could receive anything. There are a number of similar errors scattered through the book. There are many digressions and diversions and accounts of notable visitors to Wakefield, all the way down to President Coolidge, but little about George Washington.

With Chapter III, one hopes to get going, but this is a description, though sketchy, of Washington's journey to Fort Le Boeuf. Chapter VI is a history of the Dandridge, Parke, and Custis families, Chapter VII a discussion of business, politics, and outside associates after his marriage, but almost nothing of Washington's family life. In Chapter VIII, there is at least something of his life at Mt. Vernon. In it we learn that Martha had the measles, and, an interesting phase of colonial practice, that Dr. Laurie, Washington's family physician, received £15 by the year for attendance on the Washington family. A letter Moore quotes from Martha Washington to her sister has some implication that Martha had some hopes that she would bear a child.

During the last two months of 1769, the whole family was at Williamsburg during the session of the House of Burgesses, of which Washington was a member. The assembly passed eighty-nine laws, some of first rate importance and a number affecting the planter class. In his diary Washington does not mention a single law as having been discussed or talked about; but it is very full of notes about dinners and parties. The latter part of this chapter covers the story of Jackie Custis and Nelly Calvert and has little of moment touching Washington himself. Many pages follow the career of Eliza Parke Custis and her descendants to the third or fourth generation. And so the book goes on.

The book seems to be the result of a series of papers read at various times to patriotic or other societies, who desire a little historical diversion now and then, with particular reference to the relationships of the early heroes to their living representatives.

Occasionally, we find an interesting quotation or reference, such as have already been mentioned. Another instance of this is the letter of Washington to John Augustus Washington, while the former was camped at Newburgh in 1783. Washington writes "In God's name, how did my brother Samuel contrive to get himself so enormously into debt." Only one instance of many indicating the dependence of the whole family, the collateral as well as the closer relatives, on Washington's administrative abilities.

Moore does not comment especially on Washington's attitude toward his mother, but he quotes her

complaints in letters to Washington regarding the hardness of the times and of her wants and difficulties. Washington writes to his brother, John Augustine, to see her and reason with her and ask her what she wants and that he (George) will take care of her. Shortly after, John A. Washington died, and George then wrote directly to his mother suggesting various plans for her future. But he earnestly dissuaded her from coming to Mt. Vernon to live with him. We cannot escape the conclusion that she must have been by this time, and indeed perhaps through her life, a querulous woman, and difficult even for her son George to get along with.

The book has numerous illustrations, mostly of Washington's relatives and of places associated with them rather than with Washington. The author has a useful chronology at the end of the volume, and, in the last chapter, the principal provisions of Washington's will. The book is of genealogical rather than of biographical importance, if there is such a distinction, and contains insufficient material on Washington's family life to justify its title.

LITTLE'S BIOGRAPHY

George Washington by Shelby Little, is a large and beautifully printed volume that is a delight to look at. The work devotes itself chiefly to the history of Washington's relations to independence and the Revolution, and to his later public services. Forty pages takes him through his boyhood, youthful associations, and business affairs, his trips to the west for Dinwiddie, Fort Necessity, and Braddock's expedition, and brings him back to Mt. Vernon.

A sarcastic or ironical vein runs all through the book, it much resembling in style that of Woodward. There are no references to page or place of the numerous justifying quotations scattered through the text, though they are usually attributed to their authors. The writer evidently depended on original material either from the collections of sources, or from books that quote heavily, as his statements of facts seem to be accurate. There is much indirect quotation. To one not recently familiar with much of the source material, such rewritten matter might easily pass for the author's own work. This, of course, has no bearing on the accuracy of these abstracts.

The critical stand taken by the author with regard to some of Washington's less admirable traits is shown in his handling of Washington's correspondence with Dinwiddie with regard to the Virginia militia. He says: "Dinwiddie often had difficulty in comprehending just what he [Washington] was doing"; then follows a long list of Washington's complaints, without much effort to show whether or not they were justified. The omission of the justification certainly puts Washington in a disagreeable light as a persistent complainer and faultfinder. When Washington reached Philadelphia on his trip to see General Shirley in Boston, Little says; "All those crisp ruffles and white liveries that had been so immaculate when he rode out of Alexandria had to be sent to a washerwoman." It is somehow difficult to find fault with what is very

likely a true statement, even in its inclusiveness. Yet somehow it seems intended to take a fall out of Washington's pride in his appearance. A little further on the author talks about Washington's disappointment that Shirley was unable to grant him a king's commission; "However intense his disappointment, he would bear it—and he went again to the tailor and bought quantities of silver lace, and a new hat, did conscientious sight-seeing and played cards." The comment seems to imply that Washington's disappointment could be salved by such diversions. Such unpleasant innuendos which seem to impute unworthy motives to Washington are frequent in the book. The two preceding quotations and the one that follows are all to be found on two successive pages.

"It was known that William Johnson had received 5,000 acres of land and a baronetcy for winning the battle of Lake George, but Washington did not comment. If he was thinking that, after all, it might be worth his while to stay in the army, he confided it to no one."

A few pages further, Dinwiddie ordered Washington to send 100 men to reinforce Fort Cumberland, which the latter thought should be abandoned. "Washington found endless causes for delay. Dinwiddie was furious and Washington finally complied. There was nothing else to do." "Washington was not always right but he always thought he was." Both true statements, but there again is the skillfully placed sting in the mere style of each statement. It may be noted here that the personages mentioned in the book are often furious, or raging, or horrified, or shocked, none more often than Washington himself. One wonders how he stood the strain.

Little points out that there was a law in Virginia against candidates for office spending money for treats to the voters, and then says "Law or no law, he [Washington] had spent £59. 6s. to effect his election to the Virginia House of Burgesses."

Our author has found one very interesting statement of a French ambassador to Constantinople, who said in 1763; "The winning of the French and Indian War will be a fatal triumph for England. Her colonies will no longer need her protection, she will call on them to contribute toward supporting the burdens they have helped bring on her, and they will answer by striking off her dependence." Such an accurate prophecy a dozen years before the event would seem to justify the citation of chapter and verse, but there is no such luck. Dates are very infrequent. The non-importation agreements from other colonies were being discussed, and "Washington joined in forming the Virginia Non-importation Association before 10 o'clock in the evening." There is no other day or date mentioned, so why be so particular about "10 o'clock"? This sort of thing occurs more than once, so that it often becomes difficult to follow long continued campaigns, such as Washington's movements in New Jersey between Monmouth and his move to Yorktown.

Little puts emphasis on Washington's keen business sense, not to say his sharp practices. He cites his letters to his old comrades in arms, Capts. Stobo

and Van Bramm, of his old Virginia regiment. Washington wrote discouragingly of the prospect of converting their rights to a land bonus into actual warrants, and of the quality of the land they would get even if the matter was confirmed. Little says that the same day Washington wrote to his land agent to buy their rights provided they will take a trifle for them.

When Washington, on being elected Commander-in-Chief, said he would take only his expenses, Little says, "there were those (and they were the men who knew him best) who doubted his entire sincerity." Again no proof.

In discussing the New Jersey campaign, just before Yorktown, the author goes to some trouble to convict Washington of indecision, and cites from a number of letters, notably one by Colonel Reed, Washington's confidant, and one from General Greene, the latter saying "the General does want decision." Here our author helps along by stating that Washington, after forming various plans for annoying the British, finally did nothing. "There were so many things about which [Washington] could do nothing!"

In spite of the highly critical, and sometimes even unfair attitude of the author toward his subject, the work so far as the actual facts are concerned seems to be accurate. The author seems to congratulate himself on not citing the authority for his statements or the place where his quotations can be found, and rather invites his readers to go over the sources mentioned in his extensive bibliography in order to find out. But in the many cases where the quotations were familiar to the writer of this article, no inaccuracy was recognized. Our criticism of the book lies in its sarcastic and ironical attitude.

In many cases the author's comment is a clever, and ironical bending of the usual meaning of words in order to give an interpretation of the admitted facts that is unfair or derogatory to Washington.

THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF

The book entitled *Washington, Commander-in-Chief*, by Capt. Thomas G. Frothingham, aims "to set forth in its true light, and with its right perspective, the military record of George Washington," and laments that heretofore his biographies have been the work of those not skilled in the military art, and hence did not do justice to this phase of Washington's career. The author has a high regard for Washington's military skill, and believes that Lawrence Washington's service with the British expedition to the West Indies, when Washington was about twelve years old, furnished the emotional basis for the latter's military bent.

In discussing Washington's early life, and of the influence of his surroundings on it, our author says, "In the hunting field Lord Fairfax found that George Washington was one after his own heart." Van Dyke points out that there is no evidence that Washington and Lord Fairfax were ever such close friends as this statement indicates.

The work is prolix and diffuse in discussing the relation of Washington's education to his career. His

early military adventures take but little space. Five lines on page 15 describes the Fort Necessity campaign, and the Braddock campaign gets about half a page, in addition to Washington's own account of the fight. While the title of the book covers only Washington's career during the Revolutionary War, the author's preface commits him, we think, to a fuller account of his earlier activities than is given.

The author states, in regard to Washington's standing for election as Burgess, on his return from Braddock's campaign, "He was chosen by a large and enthusiastic majority of the electors." The fact is that Washington was defeated the first time he stood for election. The second time, the one referred to by the author, the poll stood: Washington, 505 votes; Mason, 400; Col. Stephen, 294.

One can hardly say that 505 votes represented a large and enthusiastic majority of the voters.

Similar inaccuracies occur from time to time. The author tells us that the garrison at Fort Du Quesne abandoned their isolated position, when at last the Forbes "expedition appeared in force before the fort." What happened was that the French defeated an advance detachment under Major Grant, while the expedition "in force" was many miles away, and immediately thereafter burned and abandoned the fort. He says that "Americans fully realize that it [the Revolution] was not a quarrel with Great Britain but with the King's minister's." The weight of evidence seems to be otherwise.

There is much discussion of matters not especially connected either with Washington or with his military career. There are long detailed stories of Lexington and Concord and their consequences, then a couple of pages discussing Washington's election as commander-in-chief, followed by twelve pages of a detailed story of Bunker Hill!

Any adventure that involved risk or difficulty but that was successfully achieved becomes something of the miraculous. There is usually no analysis of the difficulties nor of the means by which they were overcome.

Regarding the organization of a European type army, as well as in other places in the book, the author says, "it is only necessary to face the facts," but almost nowhere are the facts faced or even stated, in spite of the frequent use of the phrase. Our author takes pages to say that Washington could not hope for an army equal to that of the British and that the latter were at a disadvantage in irregular warfare. He says that such a result as that at Saratoga "is inconceivable, if it hadn't been for the organized forces," and further that "we cannot avoid these proofs." The proofs seem to be that the surrender actually occurred since no other proof is mentioned.

There is a curious lack of detail in almost all descriptions of battles in which Washington was present, as compared with the details given in regard to Concord, Bunker Hill, the retreat from Canada, and the first attack on Charleston, S.C., in which Washington was not concerned. The poor military judgment of Washington in risking the capture of his army on

Long Island is pointed out, but this time no miracle happened. Our author blames public opinion for forcing Washington to try to hold Brooklyn Heights, and finally thinks it was due to an inexcusable blunder of the officers in the field. However, it was all right. "The Americans were really in no danger since the British never imagined that such a retreat [from Long Island] would be attempted.

The author's most quoted sources are Stedman's *History of the American War*, an almost contemporary British work, and Fortescue's *History of the British Army*. Almost any of the larger works noticed in this article gives a better story of Washington as commander-in-chief than the present work. It has some earmarks of being a compilation of separately written papers which were later fused together to make a book.

THE SON OF HIS COUNTRY

In *George Washington, the Son of his Country*, Dr. Paul Van Dyke traces Washington's career from his boyhood to 1775, and aims to show that his preparation for leadership was the inevitable outcome of his social and natural environment.

The author dismisses the myth as a source, but "stories in which a general tradition known to be true finds a dramatic but inexact expression are sometimes worthy of consideration." He says of the "debunkers," that "the unconscious motive behind this drift is evidently the feeling that it makes Washington more human to accumulate in his career a large number of mistakes and peccadillos."

Our author seems to find Washington freest of personal ambition of any of the heroes of the nations except Joan of Arc, and seems to think that this largely accounts for the great esteem in which he is held.

Much evidence is cited to show that Washington had ingrained in him the aristocratic tradition, such as his advice concerning the reorganization of the Virginia Militia in 1758 on his retirement from that service. "Be circumspect in your choice of officers. Take none but gentlemen." The same phrase often occurs in his letters to his subordinates in organizing the Continental army, as quoted in others of the books here discussed.

Washington was a gentleman farmer who made farming a business. He had about thirteen square miles around Mt. Vernon, and owned a total of eighteen square miles of surveyed land. In spite of what has, in these later years, been written to prove that he was devoted to the more hearty sports, there is evidence that he attended but one cocking main and then didn't stay till it was over. He attended the races but six times in seven years.

Mt. Vernon was almost never without its guests whether or not its master was present, a situation that is all one with the aristocratic customs of Europe. A count through the seven years of his journal preceding 1775 shows that Washington was at home 1885 days and had a total of 1988 countable guests, though the actual number was probably well over two thousand. He was considered by his friends to be a generous and agreeable host and a kind neighbor. Evidence

of the trust reposed in him is given by the fact that just prior to the Revolution he was administering no fewer than six different estates besides his own.

He was the holder of warrants for 55,000 acres of land in 1775, and risked more by siding with the Revolution than any one else in the colonies.

With regard to his swearing, when angered, the author refers to the incident at Monmouth and points out that there is no real evidence that Washington swore. Lee says that "his words were very queer." General Scott said, "Never have I enjoyed such swearing before or since. Sir, on that day he swore like an angel from heaven!" But Scott was in another part of the field when the conversation with Lee took place.

Washington is taciturn in his letters with respect to liberty or independence. Only 68 letters dated between 1764 and 1775 have been printed, and less than a dozen make references to political questions. He thought the Stamp Act would be "direful to the mother country and her colonies," but later took a more decided stand and expressed a willingness to take up "arms" in defence of the liberties of America. At the beginning of October 1774, he foresees war.

Dr. Van Dyke in conclusion says, "whatever be the influences of heredity and environment it is assumed there is always something to be developed. Why didn't his neighbors develop the same way as Washington? He sees the reason in five fundamental qualities that others lacked in equal degree: 1. Courage; 2. Good judgment; 3. Power to win the hearts of men; 4. Magnanimity joined to a sense of duty; 5. His innate goodness.

His forty years of living in the Ohio wilderness, and in the wheat and tobacco fields of the Potomac, so developed these fundamental qualities that the Son of Virginia became the Father of His Country.

Dr. Van Dyke's book is interesting, readable, and accurate. His estimates are just and strike a fair balance between those who followed the Weems ideal, and the iconoclasts, who, by some odd impulse would destroy the thing they love. Van Dyke has done more. He has substituted figures and counting for generalizations based on two or three extracts from letters and diaries. Instead of life at Mt. Vernon being a succession of balls, parties, cocking mains, races, and other evidences of the sporting life, it was comparatively uneventful, except for the frequent guests. Washington's one chief diversion was fox-hunting but even here he was more often alone, or with a servant or "Jackie" Custis, than with the brilliant company usually associated with this sport.

AS A BUSINESS MAN

Halstead Ritter's *Washington as a Business Man* is a good and interesting account of Washington's extensive business affairs, of which the conduct of his farms at and near Mt. Vernon formed only a part.

As other authors have pointed out, Washington was a great believer in the value of land and of enterprise based on it. When Washington organized and subscribed for the stock of various navigation companies it was always those companies which would make his

holdings of Western lands easier of access or would give a better outlet for their produce and so enhance their value. He was a born organizer and administrator, a view which confirms that of Woodward in describing Washington as a colonial "captain of industry." Ritter points out that on Braddock's expedition, the work done by Washington was in part that which would be done by the engineers, and partly that which would fall to the lot of the quartermaster, supervising road gangs, drawing plans for entrenchments, arranging for transport and supplies. When Commander-in-Chief of the Virginia Militia he selected the location for and planned a string of forts and supervised their construction.

He organized a Mississippi company in 1763 to get ten million acres from the Crown, but with no success, and the outbreak of the Revolution put an end to the plan.

About the time Washington was dealing with the ten million acre proposition he records that he must charge the estate of Miss Custis, his step-daughter and ward, one shilling paid for having a breast pin mended.

In 1773 he offered for sale all or any part of 20,000 acres located near Pittsburg. He was anxious to raise a breed of "gentle" buffalo, and wrote to his Western agent to buy all the buffalo calves he could get "and make them as gentle as possible. I would not stick at any price for them especially the cow calves, but I should like at least two bull calves for fear of accidents as I am very anxious to raise a breed of them." In 1763, he organized the Great Dismal Swamp Company, for draining the Great Dismal Swamp, and was its managing director for five years. This company is still in existence. Between 1810 and 1825, Washington's executors collected \$18,815 in dividends on his stock, and then sold the stock for \$12,100.

Washington's plantation at Mt. Vernon was the first to be run on a business basis. When he found that tobacco culture was not paying he gradually turned his fields over to wheat. He raised more bushels to the acre than any of his neighbors, although the soil was rather poor. This was due to his constant experimenting and reading of books on agriculture, in the endeavor to provide the most suitable conditions for the different crops. He once constructed ten different bins containing ten different mixtures of soil and fertilizer and sowed wheat, oats and barley in each. He tended and watered them equally. The result of these and other experiments was that he developed famous wheat fields with unprecedented yield. He purchased every invention and implement available.

Since ready money was difficult to come by, Washington tried to avoid spending what he received by making his plantation self-supporting. He erected looms for weaving, a flour mill, a tannery, a smithy, a cobbler shop, and finally in the last few years of his life, a distillery, which, it may be said, turned out to be quite a profitable venture. "Buy nothing that you can make yourselves."

This interest in business and manufacture continued all through his life. When he was president he wrote Jefferson asking him about the manufacture of glass,

and the methods in European cotton mills. He paid five pounds for a plan for buildings for iron works.

Ritter says that it is difficult to strike a balance sheet or account of the intricacies of Washington's accounting system but that his income from Mt. Vernon was about \$15,000 a year after the establishment of the wheat and flour trade.

Washington lost no opportunity to increase his land holdings. In the interval between the surrender of Cornwallis and the end of the peace negotiations, Washington took a trip to Central New York with General Clinton and paid \$9,000 for 6,050 acres in the Mohawk Valley. In 1793 he sold two-thirds of it for a gain of \$2,500, and valued the remainder at \$6,000. Robert Morris tried to interest him in the 6,000,000 acre North American land company. He advised Morris that he (Morris) was too old to go into such extensive concerns, and that he should retire.

In harvesting, he anticipated the efficiency system. In corn ground, for example, for every two cradles, allow four rakes, one shocker, and two carriers, and let the cradles begin a little before the others. He was the first in America to cultivate lucerne, now known as alfalfa.

Space will not permit any further outline of the mine of information contained in Ritter's book, though it is difficult to stop where there is so much of interest. One is amazed at how Washington could find time to keep his accounts in such detail, and attend to his other affairs, and note such items as that he had "made a box for a plow and used 150 nails in the making."

The author keeps closely within the limits set by his title, and the book is an excellent account of one of the less well known sides of Washington's life.

REPUBLICAN ARISTOCRAT

The most recently published biography of importance is that by Bernard Fay, "George Washington; Republican Aristocrat." Fewer than 50 of the 273 pages of the book deal with the period from 1783 on, and the chief use of these is to give the author the opportunity to bring his book to a graceful conclusion.

The work is based on the point of view that Washington was the product of the Virginia landed aristocracy, a view which agrees with that of Professor Van Dyke. In reading it one gets the feeling that much of Washington's training and opportunities came through his older half-brothers Lawrence and Augustine. Through them Washington came in contact with the Fairfaxes, and other important families of the colony. His mother's family seems to have rather ignored him, and, in any event, they seem not to have had any important influence in shaping his life, with the possible exception of the letter written by his uncle in London to his mother, advising against the Navy as a possible career for young George.

For the first 50 pages Fay's book follows the general trend of Hughes in exposing to us some of what has been called the human side of the young, impetuous, emotional Washington. By tradition, he is taciturn, much given to putting his thoughts on paper, espe-

cially in letters, but as we have before noted, his thoughts are almost never introspective. Washington's taciturnity even extended to his interest in the other sex. Like Miles Standish, he employed intermediaries to "find out how the land lay"; Captain Bell in his affair with Mary Philipse, while his younger brother John seems to have been the one to whom Washington's letters to Sally Fairfax were intrusted.

Fay accepts with Hughes the accusation that Washington signed the capitulation at Fort Mifflin admitting the "assassination" of Jumenville, but omits his denial that he was aware of the fact that the word assassination was used in describing the manner of Jumenville's death.

In contrast to most of the other biographers, Fay looks upon Washington as a sort of recluse. He states that the word that most often occurs in the diaries is, "alone"; "dined alone"; "hunted alone"; "went alone." This assumption does not square with Professor Van Dyke's court of two thousand visitors to Mt. Vernon in the hundred fewer days that Washington was home between 1768 and 1775.

Fay looks upon the marriage with Martha Custis with the eye of the Frenchman to whom the marriage of expediency, or "convenience" is a more or less common thing. Here again we see the aristocratic tradition, in which the high-born sacrifices his own feelings in return for the strengthening of social position. Fay says, "A marriage in an important family was much more of a public responsibility than a personal pleasure." It is just so in France today.

In spite of our author's temporary dallying with the unpleasantly critical attitude of Hughes and Woodward, he becomes in the last four-fifths of the work absorbed by the towering majesty of his hero. He accounts for Washington's successes (and his failures) by his inherited aristocratic aloofness and belief in himself. His decisions, once arrived at are of more moment than those of lesser breed. The sacrifice of Washington consisted in giving up his own desires and pleasures and advantages for the sake of his people. Precisely as Karl Heinz does in the play, in sacrificing his love for Kathie. Again we have the aristocratic "Noblesse oblige," which might easily have been his motto. His own wants and desires are unhesitatingly sacrificed when the call comes from time to time to serve those who are less able to serve than he. This seems to be the philosophy back of Fay's biography. Washington is the man of destiny who serves the common weal for a pure love of service. His popularity, even among his enemies, was according to Fay, due to their belief in the pure disinterestedness of his life, and his work for his fellowmen.

The work is interesting and easy to read. The most striking thing, to the reviewer, is the rather curious change in the biographer's point of view, which causes him to shift from a critical exposition of the failings of Washington's personality in his early life, after the manner of those who would make him quite an ordinary person, to an almost adoring admiration for Washington's later achievements.

The book is fully annotated with reference to

sources, but the resemblance of the early portion of it to Hughes' work arouses the thought that its author may have used Hughes' book as a guide to the material available for this part of the work.

WASHINGTON'S LIFE IN HIS OWN WORDS

The very newest biography is *George Washington*, by Louis M. Sears, which was published January 25, 1932. This book aims to be a life of Washington based chiefly on his own writings. The paucity of material of this type for certain periods of Washington's career at times drives the author to a use of other sources, but, on the whole he sticks to his plan. The style is, in general, that of indirect quotation with the actual words of the letter or diary given at reasonable intervals. The work is well documented, but has the citations grouped by chapters at the end of the work, which is rather troublesome, though this plan undoubtedly improves the appearance of the pages.

The author finds himself cramped by the lack of material on the early life of Washington. Twenty pages brings him to Fort Mifflin and two more to Braddock's Expedition. In a chronological summary at the end of the book there are only three entries prior to Washington's trip to the French forts for Governor Dinwiddie, his birth, his surveys for Lord Fairfax, and of Alexandria in 1747, his trip to the Barbados with Lawrence Washington, in 1751.

From this point on, however, the author makes an unusually good choice from the materials at hand and has, as a result, a very good biography. No errors were noted in the book, though at times, the author's comment on the facts may be questioned. For example, Sears thinks that the letters of Washington and others, which concern his attitude toward his woman friends, are not to be taken seriously. Nor does the writer agree that Washington did not lose his confidence in the loyalty of Jefferson to their life long friendship, until the period of the war with France in 1798. The same may be said of the author's excuses for the failure at Long Island. However, the author presents the evidence in most cases, leaving the reader free to form his own judgment. He quotes, for example, Pickering, Greene, Hamilton, John Adams, Von Steuben, Dr. Rush, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, and Charles F. Adams, Jr., as in agreement on the fact that Washington was not a military genius, but discounts the criticisms.

Professor Sears differs with those who think the colonists blamed the war on the king, agreeing with Randolph Adams and C. H. McIlwaine rather than with John Hay and Walter H. Page. He is of the opinion that Hamilton was not so close personally to Washington as was Lafayette.

A point not usually brought out is the perennial interest of Congress in Canada, almost up to the last, in spite of discouraging earlier experiences and the adverse opinions of Washington. The value of sea-power is clearly appreciated by Washington, anticipating the later ideas of Mahan and others. He has little or no time for the non-combatant civilian in the latter's dealings with the army. His letters to Congress are

largely reiterations of complaints of the inefficiency of the militia, and of civilian services in relation to the army. The author suggests that the experiences of the French Expedition, while at Rhode Island, are comparable with some experiences of the American forces in the World War. The French complain that the citizens and farmers, "fleece us pitilessly; the price of everything is exorbitant; their cupidity is unequalled; money is their god!"

The author agrees that Washington's relations with his mother were conventional and frequently curt, but that her disposition was such that no other attitude was possible.

The author points out that the acquisition of land was Washington's master passion and that toward the end of his life he was actually land-poor as a result of his extensive purchases, and believes that as a result of his western land holdings Washington was western in spirit through his life.

An unusually good account of Washington's part in making the Constitution is given, in which he receives credit for more than is ordinarily thought to have been his share in that great work. The author believes that Washington agreed to the Jay treaty because it averted war with England, and not because it cleared the way for emigration to the western lands.

The work as a whole looks on Washington with an eye somewhat dimmed as to his known deficiencies, but presents the story of his life with unusual fairness and lack of bias or preconception. It is one of the best biographies considered in this article.

THE BICENTENNIAL COMMISSION

The George Washington Bicentennial Commission, Washington Building, Washington, D.C., has, during the current year issued amongst other material, a series of twelve pamphlets which they call *Programs*, each of which deals with some phase of Washington's career, and designed to distribute more widely the chief facts in Washington's career, and furnished free of charge to institutions. It is not clear whether they are so furnished for individuals.

These pamphlets vary in size from 16 to 59 pages. In so brief a compass it is obviously impossible to present much more than a straight narrative of fact, though the editor has seen to the inclusion of some extracts from letters, diaries, and other sources. The pamphlets vary considerably in interest and accuracy of interpretation. They appear to have been compiled from some of the available secondary material. Therefore their value is dependent largely on the importance of the secondary works used. No references were noted in any of the pamphlets. The pamphlets appear to be anonymous, but are issued under the editorship of Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart.

A summary of the contents of these *Programs* is given below but no detailed analysis is attempted.

"Program One," deals with the family relationships of Washington, his name, ancestry, brothers and sisters, and his collateral relatives. Some quotations are given.

"Program Two" discusses the Homes of Washing-

ton, Wakefield, Mt. Vernon, Military Headquarters, Presidential Mansions, and other abiding places. There are many interesting quotations in this pamphlet.

"Program Three" treats of the youth and young manhood of Washington. It is 35 pages long and contains little besides the very well known facts of his early life.

"Program Four" tells about Washington's mother. This is one of the brief pamphlets, only 17 pages. Much about Mary Ball's ancestry and life, but little about her relations with her son George. It admits she had "an austere manner" that was "used to commanding and being obeyed." Nothing is contained in this, or for that matter in any of the pamphlets that is not highly laudatory, though occasionally letters or abstracts from sources are included that certainly admit of an opposite interpretation.

"Program Five," George Washington, the man of sentiment. The sub-titles are "the son," "the country squire," "the husband." In part one, referring to his relations with his mother, we find "The deference her son paid to her while under her jurisdiction was equalled by the consideration he gave to her expressed desires in later years." The inference here implied seems not to be quite justified by the known evidence. In the "country squire" section, it is denied that Washington was not interested in Mary Philipse. The evidence here is against the author. Nothing of moment is said regarding his life with Martha Washington at Mt. Vernon. This seems to the writer to be about the poorest of the series, though to tell the truth, there is little of the distinguished about any of them.

"Program Six," George Washington the man of action in civil and military life, the soldier in the French and Indian War, the Commander-in-Chief, the farmer, the business man and engineer, and the citizen. This contains little besides a grouping of highly laudatory opinion. There are no details on Fort Mifflin; and on Braddock's expedition, the book merely quotes Washington's letter to "the governor." Regarding his election it says "he was elected by a large majority," but does not infer to his earlier defeat. "Forbes depended on Washington and Braddock didn't" "The above proves that Washington had a grasp of military matters that was extraordinary." "When he decided to use his own judgment, brilliant victories were usually the result." Just so.

"Program Seven," discusses George Washington the Christian, in inherited attitude, in his military experience, in his revealed conversation. "Though he was an Episcopalian, he did not confine his religion to any one denomination." The interpretation in this pamphlet are not in the writer's opinion always sound, though of course the topic is a delicate one to handle.

"Program Eight," George Washington, Leader of Men, as Patron of Education; in the advancement of civilization; as a leader in philanthropy. Under education, it discusses his interest in a good school for Jackie Curtis, but might have said more of his gifts to higher education. His contributions to civilization includes the organization of the Mississippi company, his anxiety to settle his Western lands, his canal enterprises, and his

farming experiments. "His philanthropy" is chiefly concerned with his contributions to his relatives, who seem to have been generally disposed to "let George do it." This pamphlet is very interesting and is better than most of the series.

"Program Nine," The Social Life of Washington, Childhood, before the Revolution, at Williamsburg and Mt. Vernon, in later years. A very good and interesting account of his early life. The story of Williamsburg and Mt. Vernon is less exuberant than most, there were no balls, but he "was often at the Raleigh Tavern." We wonder! The story of his contacts after the revolution is conventional.

"Program Ten," George Washington the builder of the nation; military experiences under British rule; changing views on British control; creator and originator of a new nation. This pamphlet also has him elected "by a large majority over all his competitors." There is a satisfactory story of the Jumonville incident. The later near insubordination to Governor Dinwiddie is smoothed over. The last 10 pages cover his career from 1783. It is much like an oration and is composed chiefly of the author's opinion.

"Program Eleven," George Washington, the president, includes his journey to be inaugurated; his first term; his tours of the states; and his second term. The story of his journey from Mt. Vernon to New York is conventional. That of his first term includes chiefly the very beginning; that of his tours is chiefly quotations from his journal, and that of his second term is so brief that any elementary school history would give as much.

"Program Twelve," The Home-making of George and Martha Washington, treats of his home life before the Revolution; in war times; while he was president; and later. This is one of the best of the series. It is a good brief account and sticks to the available evidence.

This same commission has also planned a series of sixteen other pamphlets on Washington, under the general title of *Honor to Washington*, and which are to be sold for 10 or 15 cents apiece. These are better printed and are more ornate than the *Programs*, but in general contain much the same material. A bibliography of important books is included in each pamphlet.

The four available at this time (December 26, 1931) are as follows:

No. 1. *The Frontier Background*, by David M. Matteson. Part I covers Washington's youth; Part II, his dealings with the Indians.

No. 2. *Washington, the Man of Mind*, by Albert Bushnell Hart, covers his education, his records, his sayings, and his honors. There is included a facsimile (reduced), of a Washington letter.

No. 3. *Tributes to Washington*, compiled by David M. Matteson. This covers statements by prominent people of all countries concerning Washington's appearance, his character and services, his world status. There is a list of the principal appointments held by him from 1749-1799.

No. 4. *Washington, the Farmer*, by David M. Matteson, discusses his management of land, crops, and

stock; and his management of farm organization and labor. The last section is by Professor Hart, and deals with his scientific farm methods. There is included, as an illustration of Washington's methodical record-keeping, an inventory of one of his farms, the Neck plantation.

These pamphlets run from 24 to 37 pages, and will be when complete a brief biography of Washington. Though containing much the same type of material, there is a unity about these pamphlets that the other series lacks.

The books discussed in this article are:

Thayer, William R.: *George Washington*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 275 pp. 1922.

Hughes, Rupert; *George Washington*. 3 vols. N.Y.: William Morrow. 1926.

Woodward, W.E. *George Washington; The Image and the Man* N.Y.: Boni and Liveright; 460 pp. 1926.

Moore, George. *The Family Life of George Washington*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 222 pp. 1926.

Little, Shelby: *George Washington*. N.Y.: Minton Balch; 459 pp. 1929.

Frothingham, Capt. Thomas G.: *Washington, Commander-in-Chief*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 388 pp. 1930.

Van Dyke, Paul: *George Washington, The Son of His Country*. N.Y.: Scribner; 292 pp. 1931.

Ritter, Halsted L. *Washington as a Business Man*. N.Y.: Sears Pub. Co.; 258 pp. 1931.

Fay, Bernard: *George Washington; Republican Aristocrat*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 273 pp. 1931.

Sears, Louis M., *George Washington*. N.Y.: T. Y. Crowell Co.; 576 pp. of text. 1932.

Hart, Albert Bushnell, editor. *George Washington Programs*, a series of twelve pamphlets. Washington, D.C., George Washington Bicentennial Commission. Various paging. 1931.

Hart, Albert Bushnell, editor. *Honor to Washington*. A series of sixteen pamphlets. Washington, D.C., George Washington Bicentennial Commission. Various paging. 1931.

What Shall We Teach About Lincoln?

BY ELIZABETH RING, ORONO, MAINE

Because there exist over five thousand biographical items on Lincoln,¹ the well-intentioned lay teacher who hopes to maintain her integrity as well as her position, may well become confused over her selection of pre-digested Lincoln fodder to be swallowed by the gullible student in senior American History.

Profound students of Lincoln are few. The years of toil required to understand the diverse characteristics of this man, interpreted in as many diverse ways in the prodigious amount of subject matter relative to his enigmatic individualism, preclude more than a superficial knowledge of Lincoln biographers by the lay student. Yet to the seeker of truth, there may be gleaned from this abundant material a picture of Lincoln which is both honest and idealistic.

The enormity of the problem in hand may be appreciated when we glance at the contradictory evidence accumulated by two of his biographers who, in their two extremes of interpretation, are separated by time as well as by opposite currents of prejudice.

The first comprehensive biography of Lincoln was that of J. G. Holland who, in his interpretation of the martyred President, did exactly as one would expect a man to do who was inspired by the life, and shocked by the tragedy, of a man who was truly great.² Holland's biography was a tribute and an eulogy. In the preface of his work the author made no attempt to conceal the admiration and partiality which he felt for Lincoln, and as one reads through the narrative one is impressed with the fact that the author himself was devoted to the principles which were the cornerstones of Lincoln's public life. In Lincoln, the reader finds a wonderfully perfect character, "so strangely pure and noble that it seems like the sketch of an enthusiast . . . for Lincoln loved all, was kind to all, was without vice, appetite, or passion, was honest, was simple, was unselfish, was religious, was all that a man could desire of a son ready to enter life."³

Herein lies the foundation of the Lincoln legend which is as traditional to the youth of America as is the picture of Lincoln which adorns the school wall. Holland was partial. He admitted it. Time alone, he believed, would give to a biography of Lincoln that symmetry and completeness which his own lacked. A great deal of water has flown under the bridge since that time and we cannot help but wonder if the recent biographies of the great President have given to the life of Lincoln that symmetry of which Holland spoke.

There was published in 1931,⁴ an interpretation of Lincoln which is the converse of the Lincoln depicted by the martyred President's first biographer. When Edgar Lee Masters speaks of the "disorderly and unkempt product of Pigeon Creek," it is hard to believe that he refers to the man so eloquently eulogized by Holland. From the prejudiced pen of Masters, completely out of sympathy with those political principles to which Holland adhered, for Masters writes as a Copperhead, the disillusioned reader learns that Lincoln had a lazy mind, that he was naturally indisposed to undertake anything that savored of exertion, that he was the cautious, astute, special pleader, educated in the cunning of "Chitty on Pleading," that in Congress Lincoln's record indicated nothing but vacillation and incoherence of thought, and in stupidity was exceeded only by his record in the state legislature of Illinois.

Holland and Masters recorded discrepancies of fact as well as of interpretation. Holland said that Lincoln loved the society of women, and possessed a nature that took profound delight in intimate female companionship.⁵ Masters writes that Lincoln was an under sexed man, that he liked to be with men as well as he liked to be with anyone and to that extent Lincoln was gregarious.⁶

In his biography, Holland made no pretense of documentation but relied, instead, upon the spoken

testimony of those people who had come to know Lincoln by their contact with him, while Master's biography is clearly an interpretation of Lincoln based on the researches of William H. Herndon⁷ and the late Senator Albert J. Beveridge,⁸ and is for that reason authenticated.

The fact, presented by either Herndon or Beveridge, is taken by Masters and grotesquely turned in order to allow the prejudiced biographer to take a verbal shot at the exalted name of his victim. For example, Herndon recorded that it was the custom of Lincoln to read Euclid while on the circuit. To Masters, this fact meant that Lincoln had an illogical mind and that he knew it. Herndon wrote that Lincoln married Mary Todd for her influence and position, and that since Lincoln was ambitious it was natural for him to do this. Masters thought otherwise. It might have been natural for Lincoln to have done this, he observed, but Andrew Jackson did not do it, neither does any man let ambition dictate his course in a matter so delicate. In speaking of Mary Todd and her virtues which he quoted from Herndon, Masters wrote:

Being this what she was at twenty-one, what was she to become as the wife of the unkempt and disorderly product of Pigeon Creek.⁹

Holland and Masters spoke in a different language. Shaded between these two extremes of interpretation are the remaining biographical sketches of Lincoln. Broadly speaking these biographies fall into two divisions, those presenting an orthodox picture of Lincoln, and those who have recorded those truths about Lincoln which make him, emphatically, one the human race. Although the former group, in number, far exceed the later, the scales are evenly balanced by the fairmindedness of Herndon, the profound scholarship of Beveridge, and the boldness of the weird interpreter, Edgar Lee Masters.

The more notable exponents of the orthodox group are Nicolay and Hay,¹⁰ Ida M. Tarbell,¹¹ Alonzo Rothchild,¹² William E. Barton,¹³ and Carl Sandburg,¹⁴ who, in their labor, have been untiring, and in their diligence, have made valuable contributions to Lincolnian subject matter. Not only is the school shelf incomplete without these Lincoln classics, the good name of the teacher herself, is not endangered by their presence there.

Since the traditional views of Lincoln are well known, more concerned are we with the truth about Lincoln as presented by Herndon and Beveridge.

No other man enjoyed such intimate relationship with Lincoln as did William H. Herndon, who, in age, was nine years Lincoln's junior. The association of these two men in law began in 1843, and continued until the assassination of Lincoln in 1865. The relations of the two were ever cordial, Herndon was aware of Lincoln's frailties as he was cognizant of his greatness, and in spite of his knowledge of these qualities in Lincoln which to the eulogist were tabooed, to Herndon their presence in the character of Lincoln only added to the superb proportions of the man who was his idol. In his biography, Herndon struggled

courageously to give to posterity a picture of Lincoln in keeping with the truth.

Upon the publication of the first edition of this work, the *Atlantic Monthly* said of it:

The reader feels confident of Herndon's honesty and accuracy . . . to anyone who wishes to know the truth about Lincoln, at whatever cost to illusions, this book is valuable and suggestive.

Why did Herndon wish to shatter the illusions which for twenty years had grown up around the name of Lincoln, illusions which placed him on a pedestal almost beyond the reach of mortals? Because Lincoln loved truth. After scanning a life of Burke, Herndon recorded Lincoln as saying,

I've read enough of it. It is like all of the others. Biographies as generally written are not only misleading but false. The author of Burke's life makes a wonderful hero out of his subject, magnifies his perfections and suppresses his imperfections.¹⁵

The performances of Lincoln's first biographers displeased Herndon, who, after reading the product of their workmanship, determined to write a biography of Lincoln in keeping with the character of his law partner as Herndon had understood it in their long years of association together.

The result of the researches of Herndon and his collaborator, Jesse W. Weik, were first published in 1889. In this biography some of the finest qualities attainable in a man were given to Lincoln, yet with the honesty which characterized his work the public learned that Lincoln permitted his law partner, Logan, to do all the studying in the preparation of cases while he, himself, trusted to the general knowledge of the law; that his office was so disorderly seeds sprouted in the accumulated dust; that Mrs. Lincoln was a wildcat but not without cause; that Lincoln once prepared an essay, called by many a book, in which he made arguments against Christianity; that he ran away from his bride on their wedding night; that he read nothing thoroughly; that he had the habit of lying on the floor when he read; and that whether his clothes fitted or looked well was entirely above, or beneath his comprehension.¹⁶

Herndon believed, devoutly, that the imperfections in Lincoln's character only made him the more human, and in the Lincoln which Herndon so honestly depicted there is symmetry, proportion, and justice.

Largely based on this work of Herndon was the scholarly biography of Albert J. Beveridge, the posthumous publication of which, in 1928, gave to the public two extensively documented volumes on Lincoln approaching an authenticity hitherto unknown. In lawyer-like fashion the facts are arrayed with page, book, and document cited for every statement made by the impartial author. The facts are given; the reader is to interpret. There is no romance in Lincoln's poverty when we read the facts stated by Beveridge.

The cabins of the wood folk were often ill-kept, dirty in the extreme, infested with vermin. There was no sanitation. Bathing and washing the body in any way was seldom attempted, food was mostly fresh . . . frying in grease being the favorite method (of cooking) . . . cabins were usually

packed, a loft sometimes relieved the congestion. . . . Men were quick to fight and combats were brutal. Profanity was general and emphatic.¹⁷

This passage is undoubtedly what Masters interpreted in terms of Thomas Lincoln and in his interpretation there is certainly a grain of truth.

Rather than to labor to rise above it, Thomas Lincoln preferred the woods and loathsome poverty, rats and cold and filth.¹⁸ Thomas Lincoln proved to be one of the most worthless men who ever fathered a man of distinction such as Abraham Lincoln, the President, who somehow, and from somewhere, came into being with a spark which weathered bad housing, bad food, and the communications of beggarly companions like Dennis Hanks, the vagrant, and others.¹⁹

The truth, presented by Herndon and Beveridge, by Masters is more often perverted in breezy, crisp sentences written in a style which few but Masters possess. Before the iconoclastic sweep of Masters' pen, the Lincoln myths fade like the rays of the dying sun. If Lincoln was honest in law and politics he was too stupid to be otherwise; if he was a man of humble origins he was ashamed of his parents and his poverty; if he was in nature humble, the egotism of his ambition was ever present; if he was a rail splitter he loathed it, for did not Dennis Hanks say that Lincoln was "a lazy man, a very lazy man," and Lincoln himself confess that his father "taught him to work but never learned him to love it?" Furthermore, objects Masters, Lincoln's voice was not the deep, good-natured drawl that is usually recorded, but rather, a treble voice, thin and high, while the pleasant story that Lincoln made up his mind while on a trip to New Orleans in his boyhood days, to hit slavery a blow if he ever had a chance, originated with Dennis Hanks and is not otherwise substantiated. But, says Masters, it is not for lack of facts that these myths have grown up about Lincoln. The facts have been disregarded in order that the portrait of him might be drawn which America wanted,²⁰ with the result that Lincoln has done as much as any other prominent figure in America to instruct the youth of limited advantages and outlook to loaf and trust to God.²¹ (So, the Lincoln tradition has developed in youth that lethargic propensity about which every teacher sighs).

However, the question is a pertinent one. How much of the sordid and uncomplimentary Lincoln can the teacher give in pre-digested form to an open-minded high school senior, without violating those sacred American traditions, which, in some form are being daily shattered by the same youth of America whose purity, in the study of Lincoln, we try so hard to keep inviolate?

One of the finest ways to build character in young people is to furnish them with the exemplary, and in no other subject in the high school curriculum is there such an excellent opportunity as in the study of History. Yet how much more interesting will Lincoln be to students when his human faults become known to them; how much more valuable to themselves will their own evaluation of Lincoln be after they have studied the portraiture of Lincoln as revealed by his many biographers.

As a potentiality no American ever exceeded Lin-

coln. His power of growth was tremendous. To interpret his lowly origins in their wretchedness is only to give emphasis to the greatness of his character in rising above them. To be aware of Lincoln's vacillation in national and state issues up to 1860, is only to have greater respect for that firmness which he used in the preservation of the Union. To discover, in 1858, that Lincoln had suffered two major political defeats which, in his opinion, were fatal to his political career, and as a consequence made him hardly more than a local politician, is to magnify the success which, in 1860, was attained by him.

Lincoln saw his friends getting ahead while he received only the hard schooling of defeat. From the discouraging years which preceded his election as President, Lincoln emerged with a greatness visible even to his adversaries.

In the hearts of American youth Lincoln will remain as long as his picture hangs over the school rostrum, and his greatness will be magnified through the ages as his more human traits become known.

Let the high school pupil interpret Lincoln, but do not throttle his open-mindedness by placing at his disposal only those biographies which give the traditional view of Lincoln. The pupil should evaluate and the teacher guide by placing at the student's disposal those books which are necessary in order to make a study of Lincoln thorough and complete. No other American offers the rich opportunity for biographical criticism as does Lincoln.

The last word in the interpretation of Lincoln's enigmatic character has not been written. The intelligent guidance of a teacher may yet develop in the embryonic mind of a pupil that germ of curiosity, which in the more mature years of scholarship may produce that interpretation of Lincoln's life which has yet to be made.

¹⁷ Newton, Joseph F. *Lincoln and Herndon*, 1910; p. 311n.

¹⁸ Holland, J. G. *Life of Abraham Lincoln*, 1866. J. L. Scripps wrote a campaign biography of Lincoln in 1860.

¹⁹ Holland, p. 63.

²⁰ Masters, Edgar Lee, *Lincoln the Man*, 1931.

²¹ Holland, p. 90.

²² Masters; p. 145.

²³ Herndon and Weik; *Abraham Lincoln*, First Edition 1889, 3 vols.

²⁴ Beveridge, Albert J., *Abraham Lincoln* (1809-1858), 2 vols. 1928.

²⁵ Masters, p. 62.

²⁶ Nicolay and Hay, *Abraham Lincoln, A History*, 1890, 10 Vols.

²⁷ Tarbell, Ida M., *Life of Abraham Lincoln*, 1902, 4 Vols.

²⁸ Rothchild, Alonzo, *Lincoln—The Master of Men*, 1906.

²⁹ Barton, William E., *Life of Abraham Lincoln*, 1925, 2 Vols.

³⁰ Sandburg, Carl, *Abraham Lincoln*, 1926, 2 Vols.

³¹ Newton, p. 314.

³² Following the sale of manuscript material by Herndon to W. H. Lamon, Lamon published a *Life of Lincoln*, 1872, in which some of the assertions were made against Lincoln which were later used by Herndon. A scathing criticism of this book by Holland was a contributing factor in the failure of Lamon to publish the third volume.

³³ Beveridge, I, pp. 50-52.

³⁴ Masters, p. 16.

³⁵ Ibid., p. 9.

³⁶ Ibid., p. 124.

³⁷ Ibid., p. 115.

Teaching of History in the Secondary Schools of Sweden

BY M. BÄCKLIN

Annotated Translation by Drs. Joseph R. Strayer, Princeton University, and Ruth McMurry, Teachers College, Columbia University

THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SWEDEN

Reorganization.—Swedish secondary education was completely reformed in its organization and in its conception of methods of work, by a decree of the *Riksdag* in 1927, followed in 1928 by a program for instruction and regulations for higher public secondary schools [*Högre allmänna läroverk*]. A reform of all schools, both those for children and those for young people, was desired; they were to be assimilated, and were to form a unified school system, in which the different sorts of schools would cooperate more than they had in securing to all members of society equal opportunities for the education of their children. The elementary school was made the basis of secondary education, as it had not been before. This is especially important in respect to entrance to the public secondary schools which now takes place only after the fourth or sixth school year, instead of after the third, as was usually the case before. Moreover, most of the secondary schools have been opened to girls, who were formerly sent to private establishments, where education was comparatively expensive. Finally, an attempt has been made to concentrate work by higher specialization in the two upper classes; and the necessity of seeking all possible ways of stimulating the pupils' initiative has been emphasized.

Types of Schools.—Since 1928, secondary education has been organized in the following way:

1. The higher public secondary schools [*Högre allmänna läroverk*] some of which are exclusively for boys, some exclusively for girls, and the majority coeducational. They are divided into two sections, one of four or five classes which form a middle course (*Realskolan*), and the upper classes which form the advanced course, or gymnasium. With the latter is associated a new type of secondary school which has been recently established, and which has not, as yet, had a large attendance.¹

The middle course may be independent [*Kommunal Mallanskola*]² or connected with the gymnasium [part of *Högre allmänna läroverk*]. The course lasts four or five years, and ends with a graduation examination (*realexamen*). The purpose of instruction in the middle course is "to give a general middle class education, which will supplement and complete that given by the elementary school."

The work in the gymnasium lasts three or four years, and is divided into two courses of study, a Latin and a non-Latin or modern course. The examination for the baccalaureate comes at the end of this course. The gymnasium, "besides the educational aims of the

middle course, has the special duty of developing a scientific background which will be extended later on at the University, or in the great higher professional schools."

2. The higher elementary schools [*Högre folkskolan*] and the continuation schools correspond more or less to the middle course [*realskolan*, but do not lead to the *realexamen*]. There are also some *gymnasien* supported by local districts. These are aided and controlled by the state, on which they will be directly dependent in the near future.

3. Private schools are principally higher secondary schools for girls, higher schools for boys, and some higher coeducational schools. All institutions of any importance are subsidized and controlled by the state. Some of them have the right of granting the baccalaureate.

Number of Pupils.—The number of pupils in the higher public secondary schools was about 40,000 in 1928. Six thousand seven hundred of these were in the gymnasien (advanced course). Of the total number, there were about 30,000 boys and 10,000 girls. In the same year, there were 30,000 students in private schools, most of whom were girls.

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The following discussion of the teaching of history in secondary schools is based on the practice of the state secondary schools. The methods and courses in private or communal schools correspond, in general, with those of the state schools.

The Teachers.—In the middle course, history is taught by instructors who have studied history, on the average, a year or a year and a half at the University.³ In the gymnasium, or the advanced courses, the teachers usually have the degree of Doctor of Letters. Both categories of teachers must have taken a practice course in history for a year; that is to say, they have received the instruction (including observation and active participation in lessons) given in certain state higher secondary schools, concerning the teaching of history. Supplementary courses for teachers of history are being organized on a larger scale than before.

Purpose of History in the Middle School.—The course of study of 1928 gives the following aims for the teaching of history in the middle course. "Following the work done in the elementary school, history instruction should give the pupils more coherent knowledge of the history of our country, especially in the modern period; it should acquaint them with

important personages and events of world history, including the essentials for an understanding of the study of the society and the culture of the present period; with this instruction as a foundation, it should acquaint them with the formation and activities of society, and with the rights and duties of citizens."

Courses in the Middle School.—The course of study prescribes that in the first of the five years of the middle course, the children become acquainted with "stories and heroes of the history of our country," in the classes which follow, world history and Swedish history are taught together. In the last class, "the social formation of the country," "important social movements," as well as "fundamental traits of the Swedish constitution and administrative system," are to be studied. History is given three hours a week, except in the next to the last class, where it is only given two hours.

The double connection with the elementary school, and the principle that the courses in the four-year middle school should parallel those in the five-year school, are responsible for the first year course in the five-year school (stories and heroes of the history of our country), which has been severely criticized. This course, they say, is taught twice; the first time as a sort of rapid survey which has no effect, especially when it is taught to the youngest pupils in the middle school. This is an especially bad situation, because the number of hours given to the teaching of history in the middle school has been cut down, and consequently time is more precious than before.

Purpose of History in the Gymnasium.—The teaching of history in the gymnasium has the following aims, according to the course of study. Supplementing the information given in the middle course, it should "extend and intensify the pupils' knowledge of the history of Sweden and world history," "pay more attention to continuity in political, intellectual, and social development," and emphasize "what is most important for understanding the study of contemporary culture and society." This instruction should give the student some sort of historic sense. Moreover, it should acquaint them with the development and activities of modern society, and explain to them the meaning of contemporary social and economic problems.

Courses in the Gymnasium.—History is not taught in the first year of the Latin division of the gymnasium. In the second year of the Latin group, or in the first year of the non-Latin group, the program prescribes the study of "the principal traits in the political and intellectual development of ancient times and the Middle Ages," and the history of Sweden from the beginning of the modern period to 1648. In the classes which follow, subsequent periods of world history and Swedish history are studied together. Special civic instruction is given in the last year, including "social legislation, important social movements and forms of social organization (labor organizations, coöperatives, the emancipation of women, the temperance movement), the constitution and administration of Sweden, and some of the most

important events of economic life." In the Latin group, four history lessons a week are given, and in the other group, three lessons a week for the first two years, and four in the last year.

It should be observed that study of history is compulsory for all students in the gymnasium, even for those of the last two years, whose work is highly specialized. This shows the recognized importance of history in general education.

However, because of difficulties of organization, history is completely neglected in the first year of the Latin gymnasium. This means that the course in the next year, covering the period from antiquity to 1648, is entirely out of proportion. In this course it is impossible to avoid overloading, and it is especially painful to note that the history of ancient times and Middle Ages is barely touched. These are periods the importance of which can hardly be exaggerated, in acquiring the concept of historical evolution, in studying the culture and social life of our own time, and in giving the individual a good general education. Perhaps it will be possible to remedy this situation, to some extent, through a special course in the history of classical culture which history professors are trying to have introduced in an advanced class.

Subject-matter and Methods.—The subject-matter has also been changed to the reform, as may be seen by the new program for "History and Civic Instruction" in the decree of 1928. History is becoming more and more "the history of civilization and culture." In history, war a diplomacy are being hidden by a study of economic and social life. At the same time, an attempt is being made to give more time to intellectual evolution, and to the history of the church, literature, and art. Especially in history courses in the gymnasium, we are trying to show historical evolution in its most varied aspects, and to point out the importance of individualism in the collective group. This reform in instruction has necessitated limitation of the subject-matter, especially in dealing with ancient periods. Cooperation between professors of church history, literature, and other subjects connected with the study of history, which has been suggested for some time, is now to be put more into practice. For the last ten years, textbooks have been revised and corrected along these lines.

According to the suggestions on method in the course of study, the teacher in the middle school should lay more stress on great men and important events in the course of history, than on history as a whole. However, in the last class of the middle course "a more coherent and better synchronized picture of civilization" should be given, and this sort of work will become even more complete in the teaching of history in the gymnasium. Such a picture of civilization emphasizes especially the connections between the history of Sweden and the history of the world. Usually, a given period of world history is studied before the corresponding period of Swedish history, "in order to give the pupil an exact idea of the world situation at the time and of the general movements which have

come from abroad to "influence our country." The study of world politics and culture which is becoming more characteristic of the present period it to be made much more thorough.

This would seem to prove that in Sweden international history is not neglected in the schools for the benefit of national history. The study of the history of their own country imbues citizens with vital knowledge of their national spiritual inheritance, and gives them a quickened sense of their duties toward their fellow-citizens. However, there are very few countries in which a professor of history could comment, as here in Sweden, on this thought, which has been expressed by one of our greatest poets in these words: "No civilization has created itself all alone: barbarism in olden times was patriotic." In Sweden, in spite of pride in our own history, we do not fail to appreciate fairly the part taken by other peoples in the history of civilization. We try to attain to "impartiality in the exposition of facts, and prudence in judgments on persons and deeds." "As for controversial questions, it should be shown that contrary opinions have each prevailed in turn, and that arguments on both sides still exist." Such points of view show what sort of historical conceptions we are trying to give the pupils, but they show more than this. They bear witness to the importance of history in developing a vital personality.

The course of study strongly emphasizes the importance of clarity and concreteness in the teaching of history. Especially in the middle school "an abstract idea without a concrete basis is absolutely without value." The teacher should substitute "a narrative with all the epic grandeur which the circumstances allow." In both middle school and gymnasium, clarity should be sought, and the spirit of the times should be shown by having the students read memoirs and letters of the period which is being studied. More and more use is being made of ancient or historic objects as an aid to teaching, either through actual presentation, or through pictures, engravings, lantern slides, or films, and museums are visited when possible. Naturally, an historical map is absolutely indispensable.

Individual initiative in the pupils is encouraged in all subjects and at all levels of the secondary school, but it is encouraged especially in history, and above all in the history taught in the upper classes. In their courses the pupils must become accustomed "to working out the causes of a given event by themselves," and to summarize and give an adequate outline of the material which they have read, or which has been presented by the teacher. But besides the course itself, the instructor should try "to develop the pupil's ability through methodical work with standard, trustworthy sources which are at his disposal." For this purpose, indispensable books, especially encyclopedias, should be included in the school libraries, if this is possible, and should be easily accessible to the students. Individual pupils and groups of pupils may be given general outlines of work which they might do. This last method of encouraging initiative was made obligatory

in the program of 1928, which requires every student in the last two classes of the gymnasium to perform a piece of work which is essentially his own, in one of the subjects which he is studying. Naturally many students take history as their subject. The topic is chosen after consultation with an instructor, who keeps track of the progress of the work by oral conferences, by written papers, and by examinations. Instead of simple reproduction, the tendency is to require comparisons, study of the causes and the effects of a given event, or work based on letters or other private documents of a given period.

As has just been said, the position of history in Swedish secondary schools has been weakened, in some respects, by the recent reorganization. On the other hand, since much more is asked of the pupils, especially in their individual work, the possibility of their profiting by the work is much greater. Finally, since history must be studied of everybody, even by the students in the upper classes, which have been highly specialized since 1928, the importance of instruction in history for the individual and for society has been confirmed in a way which should greatly encourage those responsible for this instruction.

¹ This is a six-year secondary school based on the six-year elementary school.

² In many communities which have no state secondary schools there are communal intermediate schools (*Kommunal mellanskola*) of four years (after six years in the state elementary school) leading to the *realskoleexamen*.

³ These instructors have usually spent at least four years at the University. Of the four years, a year or a year and a half is spent in the study of history.

NOTES ON PERIODICAL LITERATURE

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

The recent magazines have been full of articles on the attitude of the French government to the world crisis as they have been on causes of and remedies for, the depression. Apparently France is so very much better off than are any other great world powers that she is exciting a very understandable, if not justifiable, hatred instead of the admiration which such success usually evokes. In the December *Atlantic*, Samuel Spring writes of *The French Parade*, and while like all others who are discussing the position of France in the last two years he calls attention to her resources, he strikes a somewhat new note in his suggestion that her prosperity lies in her loyalty to old ways and old systems, especially in her retaining small farms and unorganized industries. Her avoidance of the American "Fordism," with its menace of over production has saved her from unemployment as well as from other aspects of the depression.

In the December *Forum*, Lothrop Stoddard seeks to discover what it is that France really wants. He sees nothing more disquieting, nothing less comprehensible than the present-day attitude of France. Despite the fact that she is in many ways the most dominant nation in the world; that her army and air-fleet are by far the largest owned by any nation; that she has a considerable navy and a huge colonial empire; that she is relatively unscathed by the depression, that she has not only an enormous reserve fund, but a stable financial system, and that she has managed by her astute diplomacy, to surround herself by a Chinese wall of allies, she is obsessed by fear. Like every other nation she feels the need of security and without this, all that she has, fails to give her even a modicum of comfort.

Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies

IV. American History

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This bibliography of American history is the fourth of a series which deals with the various social studies commonly taught in the high schools. The list of historians is designed to serve as a suggestive guide for those who wish to familiarize themselves with some of the great names in American history. Specific suggestions for such a procedure may be found in the first installment of this series. The books cited are intended primarily for teachers who wish to deepen and extend their grasp of American history. The comments are informative and suggestive rather than critical.

Perhaps no country in the world has a more complete record of its history than the United States. The widespread use of the printing press and the dissemination of newspapers and pamphlets, even in the colonial period facilitated the preservation of information, and the comparative brevity of our national life has made a detailed record possible. However, these facts account only in part for the comprehensive, varied, and extensive records which we possess. From the days of the Revolutionary leaders to the present we have been acutely conscious of the importance of our nation. Naturally the preservation of the record of a great people is nothing short of an obligation. Thus the historians found materials and a people eager to have their deeds recorded for the benefit of posterity. Under such circumstances, aided in recent years by a professional group of trained craftsmen, a vast historical literature has developed.

Our historical literature possesses other merits than mere quantity. The outstanding qualities of American historical writing of recent years are accuracy, impartiality, and attention to scholarly apparatus. The rise of a professional group of historians has tended to emphasize the importance and desirability of these qualities. While the elusive quality of accuracy has not and will not be absolutely achieved, a high standard has at least been established, and slovenly misstatements do not go unchallenged. The importance of using sources has been recognized by the merest tyro. In spite of the persistent temptation to gratify national vanity, American historians have reached a commendable position of impartiality. A striking example of this attitude is the almost unanimous willingness to admit that, in the disputes which led to the Revolution, not all truth and justice were on the side of the American colonies. Perhaps it is in the matter of scholarly apparatus, however, that American historians

have made their greatest contribution. Their books contain, almost uniformly, carefully prepared footnotes and citations, a bibliography, an index, and frequently maps, tables, summaries, or other aids for the reader. The titles are carefully and honestly selected and the scope and purpose of the book are clearly indicated. Good form in these matters indicates much more than a mere desire to follow a fashion. It indicates a cautious regard for truth; it demonstrates a willingness to subject the evidence to review; and it shows a proper consideration for the careful reader. This high standard as to scholarly apparatus is unsurpassed by the historians of any other country.

On the other hand American historical writing has failed in certain respects to reach anything like a uniformly high standard. While the professionalization of history writing has raised the standards of research and accuracy, it has tended to promote premature publication. Many volumes issue whose contents have not ripened in the slow sun of repeated and critical evaluation. A second fault may be indicated by the word *style*. Much of the writing is clear, correct, and colorless. The scientific objective has been confused with personless fact-reporting. Only a few years ago the American Historical Association issued an appeal for better written articles and books. A third respect in which much of the writing on American history is open to criticism is in the matter of interpretation. The restricted scope of many books seems to afford slight grounds for interpretation, but many authors are so timid that they fail even to point out the hall in which they have filled a niche. The binding force of stereotyped formulae has also prevented any decided shift in interpretation even when new evidence justifies such a departure, and inertia prevents the new interpretations which are made from reaching the textbooks. In maturity, style, and interpretation it is probable that much of the historical writing of Europe surpasses that in the United States.

The teacher of American history has certain advantages over the teacher in other fields of history. Both he and his pupils have an understanding of the setting and are familiar with many of the characters. They have also the value of an emotional interest and the realization of the utility of much of the material treated. The equipment, maps, and reference books are generally better than those in other fields.

On the other hand the fact that the pupils already know the familiar outline of American history con-

stitutes a challenge to the teacher. Unless he is fully alive to the situation the pupils will marshal with extraordinary facility the bare facts which they already know and the course will degenerate into a review and drill on mere narrative. The pupils are usually juniors or seniors and are consequently capable of a course which will awaken in them an interest in the fundamental problems and processes of history. They should ask with genuine concern how they can settle a contradiction between two authors. They should under skillful teaching see that present problems are the surface manifestations of causes long operative. They should see that the constitution is not a static, simple document. They should learn that all history is not recorded, and above all that history not only throws light upon the past but that it is the record of life itself. Whether the pupils raise such questions or attain such viewpoints depends upon the teacher. A mere repetition of the familiar outlines spells failure. How then can the teacher prepare himself to avoid this superficial review and meet the challenge of the situation? A continuous reading program offers the most promising single answer.

IV. American History

A. Authorities

E. D. Adams, Henry Adams, J. T. Adams, Alvord, Avery, C. M. Andrews, George Bancroft, H. H. Bancroft, Bassett, Beard, Beer, Bolton, Bowers, Channing, Coman, Commons, Dewey, Dodd, Doyle, L. Farrand, M. Farrand, Fish, Fiske, Greene, Hart, Hildreth, Hulbert, Jameson, Allen Johnson, McMaster, McLaughlin, Morison, Nevins, Oberholtzer, H. L. Osgood, Parkman, Parrington, Paxson, Phillips, Prescott, Rhodes, Rives, W. S. Robertson, Roosevelt, Schouler, J. H. Smith, Stanwood, Taussig, Turner, Thwaites, M. C. Tyler, Van Tyne, Von Holst, Winsor.

B. Bibliography

1. General

- a. Channing, E.; Hart, A. B.; and Turner, F. J. *Guide to the Study and Reading of American History*. Boston, Ginn. 1896. Revised, 1912.

Contains classified lists of books on various topics. Helpful and indispensable but unfortunately quite incomplete and somewhat out of date.

- b. Johnson, Allen, and Malone, Dumas, eds. *Dictionary of American Biography*. 6 vols. New York, Macmillan, 1928-1931.

A comprehensive work by a host of writers, each of whom furnishes a bibliography. Living persons are not included. Most of the articles are very brief, but many of them are interesting as well as informative. Six volumes have appeared thus far, carrying the alphabetical list of names down to FRASER.

- c. Hart, Albert B., ed. *The American Nation*. 28 vols. New York, 1904-1918.

The best cooperative history of the United States. Comprehensive and scholarly. Each volume contains a full bibliography and excellent maps. Although a few of the volumes have been practically superseded by more recent works, most of them retain their orig-

inal high standing. Among the noteworthy volumes that may be mentioned are those by L. Farrand, Bourne, Howard, Van Tyne, M. Farrand, Bassett, Channing, Turner, Garrison, Dunning, and Hart (*Slavery and Abolition*). A series every teacher should know.

- d. Johnson, Allen, ed. *Chronicles of America*. 50 vols. New Haven, Yale Press, 1918-21.

A readable series of handy, two-hour volumes, with maps and bibliographies. Stresses literary, social, economic, and educational aspects, especially in the volumes covering the period since the Civil War. Some of the volumes are by popular rather than historical writers, but most are written by recognized historians.

- e. Schlesinger, A. M., and Fox, D. R., eds. *History of American Life*. 5 vols. New York, Macmillan, 1927-1929.

An attempt to explore the by-paths for important typical material and to picture the common man. McMaster's idea of writing the history of the *people* on a systematic scale. A valuable complement to the usual political account. The series when completed will contain twelve volumes.

- f. Hart, A. B., ed. *Epochs of American History*. 4 vols. New York, Longmans, 1891-1926.

- g. Dodd, W. E., ed. *Riverside History of the United States*. 4 vols. Boston, Houghton, 1915.

In the Epochs series Wilson's *Division and Reunion* has long been a classic. Jernegan's volume on the colonies has replaced Thwaites's older work, and Bassett's recent volume has carried the narrative to 1926. The Riverside series contains volumes by Becker, Johnson, Dodd, and Paxson. Emphasis is placed upon the South and West.

- h. Hart, A. B., ed. *American History told by Contemporaries*. 5 vols. New York, Macmillan, 1897-1929.

- i. Pease, T. C., and Roberts, A. S. *Selected Readings in American History*. New York, Harcourt, 1927.

Teachers as well as students can vitalize their work by reading from the sources. Hart has made a fairly full collection covering our whole history. Pease and Robert's collection of official papers and documents, being perhaps the most inclusive single volume available, is especially useful for teachers.

- j. Channing, Edward. *History of the United States*. 6 vols. New York, Macmillan, 1905-1927.

Scholarly, readable, comprehensive. Interesting footnotes and chapter comments. Not all readers will approve his viewpoint or the space accorded some names and events, but all will agree that the set reveals a great scholar who wrote with clarity and force. The sixth volume brings the account to the close of the Civil War.

- k. Bassett, John. *A Short History of the United States*. New York, Macmillan, 1913. Revised, 1929.

It cannot be told in one volume, yet Bassett has almost succeeded in doing so. Almost pure narrative. Convenient for reference and indispensable when one wants the facts in brief scope.

- l. Beard, Charles, and Mary. *Rise of American Civilization*. 2 vols. New York, Macmillan, 1927.

Brilliantly written survey of tendencies and movements. Interpretive rather than narrative. An admirable supplement to Bassett. The teacher who ignores this work is denying himself a great adventure.

2. Special Periods

- a. Bolton, H. E., and Marshall, T. M. *The Colonization of North America, 1492-1783*. New York, Macmillan, 1920.

A unique and fundamental book. Typical writers on the colonial period have by statement or implication committed the anachronism of assuming the existence of the United States. Some assume its birth in 1565; others in 1607; others in 1620; and others at various dates. Bolton and Marshall's book is unique in that the authors avoid this error completely by presenting the history of an area (hence the title, "Colonization of North America"). By the very conception with which they begin, they escape the fallacy of trying to trace the history of a country before that country came into existence. The book is fundamental because (1) it furnishes the information for an understanding of Spanish colonization; (2) it ties the history of the West Indies to that of the mainland colonies, French and English, as well as Spanish; (3) it presents the efforts of France and Spain to colonize the Mississippi Valley; (4) it gives an adequate account of Spain's part in the Revolutionary War; and (5) it shows how the Continental Congress laid the foundations of American government. These are some outstanding merits of the book. On the other hand the style is barren of embellishment, and some pages are crowded with local news and seemingly unimportant details. However, any teacher who wishes to enlarge his viewpoint by copious details adequately conceived cannot afford to ignore a fundamental book merely because it is devoid of a dramatic style.

- b. Martin, A. E. *History of the United States*. 2 vols. Boston, Ginn, 1928.

Unfortunately, aside from texts, there is no one-volume account of the period between the Revolution and the Civil War. Volume I of this set covers the period from 1783 to 1865 and does it in a competent manner. Well organized and readable, although not free from minor errors.

- c. Bowers, Claude G. *Jefferson and Hamilton*. Boston, Houghton, 1925.

Nominally biographies but in reality a vivid picture of the early part of the constitutional period. A polemic for Jeffersonian democracy. Bowers' *Party Battles of the Jackson Period* and *The Tragic Era* (re Andrew Johnson) are fascinating. If the teacher is protected by a critical attitude, he will profit greatly by reading these books.

- d. Shippee, Lester B. *Recent American History*. New York, Macmillan, 1924. Revised, 1930.

Traces the significant changes since the Reconstruction and shows how a rural people have been thrust into an urban mold. All things considered, perhaps the best one-volume account of the period since the Civil War. One has here a fairly full treatment, written from an enlightened viewpoint; well organized

and well proportioned. Useful bibliographies.

- e. Sullivan, Mark. *Our Times, 1900-1925*. 3 vols. New York, Scribner's, 1926-1929.

A noted reporter's idea of American history. In style and interest he has surpassed many professional historians. Furthermore, the work is unique: out of Sears Roebuck catalogues the author has secured the material for valuable chapters on styles and economic standards; he has known several presidents and many prominent men, several of whom have read and criticized various parts of the manuscript. The uniqueness of the work should not lead one to suppose it merely impressionistic; it has, for example, perhaps the clearest account available of the gold-silver controversy. Thus far three volumes have appeared, bringing the story down to 1908.

3. Special Regions

- a. Adams, James T. *Founding of New England*. Boston, Little, 1921.

- b. ———. *Revolutionary New England, 1691-1776*. Boston, Little, 1923.

- c. ———. *New England in the Republic, 1776-1850*. Boston, Little, 1926.

A series of books which furnish a valuable history of New England. Adams cites many sources and writes in an interesting manner. Readable and useful for reference. Maps and bibliographies. The first volume is now the standard treatment, and the third one covers a comparatively unworked period.

- d. Roosevelt, Theodore. *The Winning of the West*. 4 vols. New York, Scribner's, 1889-1900.

A dramatically written story of the westward movement into Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio. Deals fully with Indian wars. Vivid description of the Battle of Point Pleasant. Roosevelt held no brief for Indians, and other likes and dislikes are revealed. Not always accurate in details but always interesting. Will appeal to many high school students as well as to teachers.

- e. Goodwin, Cardinal. *Trouis-Mississippi West, 1803-1853*. New York, Appleton, 1922.

A useful summary of the great period of territorial expansion. Very properly ignores international aspects but deals competently with the fur trade, exploration, settlement, and Indian affairs. A readable book with excellent bibliographies.

- f. Schafer, Joseph. *History of the Pacific Northwest*. New York, Macmillan, 1905.

A convenient and adequate survey of the Oregon country.

- g. Williams, Mary W. *The People and Politics of Latin America*. Boston, Ginn, 1930.

An inclusive survey. About half the volume is devoted to general historic, geographic, and racial factors. The other half deals with the individual countries. Contains excellent bibliographies and a few maps.

- h. Wittke, Carl. *History of Canada*. New York, Knopf, 1928.

A convenient and readable survey of the main points in the history of our northern neighbor. Stresses topics which have been of common interest to both Canada and the United States.

4. Special Topics

a. Eggleston, Edward. *The Beginnings of a Nation*. New York, Appleton, 1896.

b. ———. *The Transit of Civilization from England to America in the Seventeenth Century*. New York, Appleton, 1901.

Two of the most readable books on the cultural history of colonial times. Though recent scholarship has altered some details, they remain illuminating and instructive books, executed both critically and creatively.

c. Faulkner, H. U. *American Economic History*. New York, Harpers, 1924.

d. Lippincott, Isaac. *Economic Development of the United States*. New York, Appleton, 1921. Revised, 1927.

Familiarity with the economic history of America is indispensable to the teacher. Either of these books will serve him admirably. Both deal topically, in chronological order with agriculture, industry, commerce, finances, and other economic phases, tying these to the political. Both contain bibliographies.

e. Phillips, Ulrich B. *American Negro Slavery*. New York, Appleton, 1918.

The teacher will find in this volume an interesting account of the origin of slavery in the colonies, Spanish as well as English; a consideration of the connection between slavery and such factors as tobacco, cotton, and expansion; and chapters on such aspects of slavery as plantation life and the domestic slave trade. Phillips's account, though in its conclusions sympathetic to the South, is dispassionately done, and therefore a far cry from Rhodes's famous Chapter IV (*His-*

tory of the United States, Vol. I); certainly a teacher should read both. If he is puzzled to decide between them, he will find evidence to help him a book just published—Frederick Bancroft's *Slave Trading in the Old South* (Baltimore, Furst, 1931).

f. Paxson, Frederic. *History of the American Frontier, 1763-1893*. Boston, Houghton, 1924.

Traces the developing frontier from the Atlantic foothills to the Pacific. A narrative and an interpretation. A synthesis of many detailed studies. Readable and useful for teachers. No bibliographies.

g. Dewey, D. R. *Financial History of the United States*. New York, Longmans, 1902.

A clear account of governmental finances. Clarifies and unifies such topics as banks, loans, tariff, and monetary standards.

h. Stephenson, George M. *History of American Immigration, 1820-1924*. New York, Ginn, 1926.

An adequate conception of what America is must in part be founded upon acquaintance with the facts of immigration. Most of the general histories deal somewhat fully with this subject in the colonial period, but devote correspondingly less attention to the subject in the period when the numbers were increasing beyond anything the colonials visualized. Professor Stephenson has supplied an excellent volume to fill this gap. Inclusive, readable, and useful.

i. Stanwood, Edward. *History of the Presidency*. Boston, Houghton, 1898. Revised 2 vol. ed. 1928.

Not so much a history of the presidency as of presidential elections. Useful statistics and party platforms. Primarily for reference.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

Members of the National Council for the Social Studies:

The next regular meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, the Department of Social Studies of the National Education Association, will be held in connection with the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in Washington, D.C., February 20, 1932.

Programs will be held at the McKinley High School, Second and T Streets, N. E., at 10:00 A.M. and at 2:15 P.M. The Yearbook will be discussed. A luncheon session is planned for 12:30 o'clock in the Teachers Lunch Room, at which time Professor Henry Johnson, Teachers College, Columbia University, will speak. Those who expect to attend the luncheon are asked to notify Mr. A. M. Vliet, McKinley High School, Washington, D.C., if possible by February 10.

At the Minneapolis meeting, December 28, 1931, of the National Council for the Social Studies the following officers were chosen: President, DeWitt S. Morgan, Principal of Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis; First Vice-President, W. G. Kimmel, Executive Secretary of the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools; Second Vice-President, Howard E. Wilson, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University; Secretary-Treasurer, Bessie L. Pierce, University of Chicago. Elected Members of the Executive Committee, O. M. Dickerson, Colorado Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado; Burr W. Phillips, University of Wisconsin.

The Birmingham, England, Cinema Enquiry Committee, in its *Report of Investigations: April, 1930-May, 1931*, contributes data of interest to social studies teachers. Sir Charles Grant Robertson, President of the Committee, outlines in the Foreword the background and reasons for the investigation. The 31-page Report is divided into three sections. Section I includes summaries of replies to a series of eight questions made by 1,439 children, ages 8-14 inclusive, enrolled in the Birmingham Schools, together with representative comments in the language of the children. The comments are quite mature in point of view in many instances; in general, they show unmistakably the negative character of the influence of many films upon children, particularly with respect to emphasis upon crime, sex, and war. Section II includes summaries of replies from groups of young people and adults, and representative comments. Section III contains summaries of 430 reports on 285 films, and four reports on "Saturday Afternoon Programmes." History films are mentioned near the bottom of the lists of those liked. One boy comments as follows: "All pictures are not true because I saw one about Washington and the flag that he had in his hand was not made till sixty years after. It was a coloured picture." The children do not like films containing love scenes, but seem to prefer those dealing with crime, war, and "Wild West" scenes. Comments from all groups include frequent mention of the unfavorable types of films received from the United States, and resentment of

their influence is found in quite a number of comments. The Report is distributed by the Hon. Secretary, 316 Hagley Road, Edgbaston, Birmingham, England. Price—twopence, postage extra.

The Autumn meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland was held at the Had-don Hall, Atlantic City on November 28, in connection with the Forty-Fifth Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. The morning session included the following program, based on the general topic, "Geography as a Social Study": Prof. Charles M. Gill, New York University, "Emotional Elements in Geography Teaching"; Prof. Ella Lonn, Goucher College, "Making Geography Attractive for History Students"; Mrs. Helen Goss Thomas, Teachers School of Science, Boston, "Geographic Factors in the Making of History." The luncheon session included: Prof. Anna Lane Lingelbach, Temple University, "London Impressions, 1931"; Prof. Florian Znaniecki, University of Poznan, Poland, "The Polish-German Struggle for Pomerania from the Sociological Point of View." Miss Mildred M. Coughlin, Western High, Baltimore, President of the Association, presided at both sessions.

The New Jersey Association of Teachers of the Social Sciences held its annual meeting at the Ritz-Carlton Hotel, Atlantic City, on November 28, in a Joint Session with the New Jersey School Librarians Association. Upton Close, New York City, delivered an address, "Behind the News in Asia." Charles M. Hollenbach, Atlantic City High School, is President of the Association.

Robert B. Weaver and Arthur Traxler, in "Essay Examinations and Objective Tests in United States History in the Junior High School," *School Review*, XXXIX (November, 1931), 689-95, describe a survey of the seventh grade in United States History to determine the comparative value of essay examinations and objective tests in measuring historical understanding and comprehension. The time element, and results were considered. Five tests of each type were constructed for two units of the course. These tests were submitted to fifteen teachers of United States History for criticism, and any test that appeared more or less difficult was revised. Two and one-half hours were consumed in constructing the essay test and seven additional hours were needed before the fifteen teachers had revised the tests in order to make them more accurate and objective. Eighteen and one-half hours were spent in the construction of the objective tests. Both tests were mimeographed and administered. The objective tests were completed by pupils in twenty minutes, while forty-five minutes were necessary for the essay type. By computing the difference in time in the administration and the checking of the two types, a saving of 760 minutes for 38 pupils was discovered in the use of the objective test.

The tests were scored and an attempt was made to evaluate the results. The conclusion was reached that when objective tests and essay examinations are carefully prepared and the essay type is kept as objective as possible in seeking definite information, they have about equal merit in measuring historical understanding. In time spent in the construction, administration, and scoring of tests, the objective test consumes much less time in scoring, and may be done by a clerk with the aid of a key.

Teachers of the social studies will be interested in Thomas H. Briggs' "Cavailing at Complacency" in *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* (October, 1931), 70-83. He deplores the fact that the public accepts without question the fetish of popular education. The public points with pride to the physical plant and published reports of attendance, but fails to inquire whether or not the things learned in the expensive plant have any relation to life after school days are over. Professors are complacent because too many embarrassing questions are seldom asked and they

ride happily along on traditional lines. "With varying degrees of ability, skill, and inventiveness the individual teacher learns to present conventional English, Latin, Mathematics, history, or science so that pupils pass conventional examinations usually conventionally devised by the instructor or by others with similar outlook and mental habits." The high-school teacher has developed skill in teaching but there is too much wasted time since the same skill is not used to determine the quality and quantity of information that should be skillfully presented.

He maintains that so-called leaders of education have so little breadth of knowledge and consequently exercise so little influence in effectively changing courses or methods of instruction.

Emphasis is placed upon "appropriate education"; all courses should be sifted to meet the varying needs of youth. "Many youth of high competence voluntarily leaves school because, in spite of its social comfort and other advantages, they are not convinced that its offerings are worth working for." A plea is made for some concerted plan that has a definite goal. "What is needed is leadership that has a longer vision than pertains to immediate administration, that has a breadth of knowledge deep enough to understand the needs of society, that has the power to stimulate dormant inventiveness and that has the courage to initiate a new curriculum reasonable with respect to needs when evaluated in terms of the whole of life."

The State of Washington has published new courses in the social studies for junior high and senior high schools in two documents, *Social Science Studies in Junior High School* (Olympia, Wash.: Jay Thomas, Public Printer, 1930. Pp. 136), and *High School Social Science* (Olympia, Wash.: Jay Thomas, 1930. Pp. 116). The courses are issued by N. D. Showalter, Superintendent of Public Instruction, with the aid of three committees—one for geography at the junior high school level, another for history and civics at the same level, and a third for all social studies in the high school. The social-studies program includes:

- Seventh grade: American History to 1815
World Geography
- Eighth grade: American History since 1815
Geography—State, United States, and
World Problems
- Ninth grade: Social, Economic, and Vocational Civics
- Tenth grade: World History
- Eleventh grade: United States History and Government
- Twelfth grade: Problems in American Democracy (½
year), and International Problems (½
year),
or
Economics (½ year), and
Sociology (Social Problems) (½ year)

The organization of materials is not uniform throughout the different subjects; the course in American history at the junior high school level is organized in terms of units, while a topical organization is followed in Geography and Civics. The civics materials are presented in brief form, and the subject bearing the same title, with the addition of Vocational civics, is developed by another committee, using the unit plan, for the high school course. All courses at the high school level, with the exception of economics and sociology, are organized in terms of units. The materials for the latter courses are presented in very brief form, with the "problem units" listed, but not presented in detail. The amount of space devoted to the other subjects varies considerably; Geography, with a very complete introductory statement of fifteen pages, is allotted 66 pages, while American history at the junior high school level receives an allotment of 53 pages. Civics covers 40 pages; Problems in American Democracy and International Problems each receive an allotment of five pages. The materials for each course include an introductory statement with objectives, time allotments for units and topics, and lists of equipment; lists of professional books and titles on content for teachers, and lists of titles for pupils. The list of titles in Sociology for pupils includes no systematic presentations of the subject; sociologists may

be surprised to see volumes by Wiggan in the teachers' bibliography. This course is introduced by the following statement: "The teaching of social problems should be entrusted only to the most capable and experienced teachers in order to minimize the dangers involved in the study and discussion of controversial problems."

Helen Halter, in a "Stenographic Report of a Junior-High-School Social-Science Class," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VI (December, 1931), 240-41, reproduces the discussion during a class period in the Milne Junior-Senior High School, New York State College for Teachers, Albany. The pupils had previously gained a command of facts through supervised study with the aid of guide sheets. The discussion was centered about four problems raised by the teacher. A table showing the number of times each pupil contributed and the total number of lines in the report contributed by each pupil is presented. Seven types of evidence of "socialization" in the work of the class period are cited by the author.

Fannie Seale, in "A Correlation Project—The Pilgrims and the First Thanksgiving," in the same number, pp. 236-40, presents in outline form the contributions of history, English, civics, geography, science, arithmetic, shop, home economics, music, physical education, the library, art, typewriting, and the auditorium to the project, as developed in the Rule Junior High School, Knoxville, Tenn.

The Social Science Section of the Central Western District of the New York State Teachers Association met in Rochester, October 30-31. At a luncheon session, Miss Louise Sumner, Director of the Harley Country Day School, talked on "The New Curriculum of the Harley School with particular reference to Social Science." In the afternoon Dr. Finla Crawford, Syracuse University, addressed the group on "The Challenge of the Progressive Conference to the Social Science Teachers." After a business meeting on Saturday morning, Dr. Howard Y. Williams, Executive Secretary, League for Independent Political Action, spoke on "Capitalism, Communism and American Politics." Edward P. Smith,

State Education Department, Albany, discussed "Desirable Qualities in a Teacher of the Social Sciences."

The Social Science Section of the Northern District of the New York State Teachers Association, at its session in Potsdam, October 9, observed a demonstration lesson by Mrs. Foster Drury, Montreal. Prof. Hidley New York State College for Teachers, gave an informal presentation on "The Diplomatic Background of the Northern Boundary Settlement Following the Treaty of 1783."

The program of the Social Science Section of the Eastern District of the New York State Teachers Association, at its sessions in Schenectady, October 22nd, included: Miss Margaret Hayes, New York State College for Teachers, Albany, "The Responsibility of the Social Science Teacher for Personality Study as a Basis for Guidance"; H. A. Pulliam, Director of Bureau of Municipal Research, Schenectady, "Education for Citizenship"; Dr. D. C. Knowlton, New York University, "The Importance of the Assignment in the Teaching of History." An exhibit of projects, maps, posters, and results of other activities submitted by pupils enrolled in social science courses in the secondary schools of the District received favorable comments.

The sessions of the Social Science Section of the Western New York District of the State Teachers' Convention were held at the Masten-Fosdick High School, November 7th. The morning session was devoted to a brief business meeting at which the officers were elected for the ensuing year: Mr. Greenwood of South Park as President and Miss McMahon of Jamestown as Secretary. The American History Section was then addressed by Dr. Bidwell of the University of Buffalo while a demonstration for the European History instructors was presented by Mrs. Mabel Grimm of Hutchinson Central High School, Buffalo. Dr. Howard C. Hill of the University of Chicago, at the afternoon session, presented the third lecture in a series on "The Unitary Procedure in the Teaching of History." The special topic for this lecture was "Teaching Pupils How to Study; the Assimilation Stage of the Mastery Procedure."

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Modern History. By Carl L. Becker. New York, Silver, Burdett and Company. 1931. XIII, 825, XXIV, Pp. \$2.24.

Professor Becker's generous-sized and attractive volume is bound in dark green and stamped in yellow. It contains twenty-eight maps, ten of which are in colors, and about 240 illustrations. Most of the pictures have some instructional value and are accompanied by informative or explanatory comments; hence it is regrettable that they are not listed in the front of the book so that teacher and pupil might utilize them to the fullest advantage. Aids for teachers and pupils—graphic charts, questions, and references—cover a total of about fifty pages. The charts occur at the ends of most of the chapters and seem to be excellent devices for summarizing and clarifying the material. The questions are both factual and thought-provoking. The references are divided into "Brief accounts", "Biography", "Historical novels", and "Sources" and are quite generous in number and inclusive in variety. Approximately half the book is devoted to the period since 1870.

The outstanding quality of Professor Becker's text is fullness. Many texts are inclusive in the sense that they contain all the familiar names and events, but this inclusiveness is achieved at the expense of fullness. Apparently Professor Becker has mentioned no facts, names, or events for the mere sake of swelling the index; consequently space is available for an ample consideration of those which are mentioned. The typical textbook writer merely announces

historical characters in the manner of a hasty hostess mumbling the names of her guests, and then the teacher wonders why the pupils do not know Mazzini from Cavour. The explanation is that pupils have never really met the gentlemen in question. Let Professor Becker introduce the men (pages 383-4), and pupils will readily know them. When the pupils have climbed Pisa with Galileo (page 179) they will never again think of him as merely one of the great scientists. Let the pupils read about Frederick, that "thin, dried-up looking man, with cold eyes and a long sharp nose" (page 117), and they will remember that Frederick was not just one of those historical characters. Consider a more difficult topic—French life in the eighteenth century. The author presents a map of the hypothetical manor of Bourneuf, introduces the Count of Bourneuf; his brother, the bishop of X; the lowly priest, Father Joseph; and the serf, Jacques Bonhomme. The social status, economic problems, and mental attitude of each is described. On this simple but effective framework is constructed a clear and adequate description of French life. Consider the problem of imperialism. The author sets forth general principles and illustrates them by the stories of rubber, diamonds, and finance. He seems to appreciate the necessity of repeated examples, ample descriptions, and an unhurried style.

A second quality of *Modern History* is its directness. Many authors, apparently unmindful of the pupils who are to use the book, have written excellent historical summaries,

whereas Professor Becker proceeds with the easy assurance of a master of the subject who is devoting his whole thought to the pupil. The reader senses this directness of appeal and feels that history is unfolding for him. The chapter titles illustrate this altogether successful attempt to talk to the reader: "How Napoleon set France right side up and turned Europe upside down", "How Bismarck began the unification of Germany by dividing it into three parts", "How Louis Napoleon became a great man by virtue of being the nephew of his uncle", and "The Peace Conference of 1919, in which many treaties were somehow made".

Professor Becker has written a remarkable text. Its style is always clear and often brilliant. The diction, organization, devices, illustrations, and questions are suited to high school pupils. Its contents reflect the liberal attitude of its author. The teachers and pupils in American high schools are to be congratulated upon having the opportunity to use such a book.

EDGAR B. WESLEY

University of Minnesota

A History of Colonial America. By O. P. Chitwood. Harper and Brothers, 1931. xiii, 811 pp.

Colonial America has for many years been accorded the dignity of a course complete in itself, even in undergraduate schools. More extended monographic material has enabled writers to enlarge the scope of textbooks designed for such a course, so that the problem of the instructor is to choose from among the volumes presented for his inspection. Proportion is what naturally interests the teacher. If he emphasizes political history he wants most of his textbook to deal with that phase of our colonial life; if he leans more to a course on social and intellectual life, he demands treatment of those topics in his manual. Professor Chitwood has evidently attempted to appeal to both types of instructors.

Some seven hundred pages of text have been divided into three parts: the origin and development of the colonies, economic and social life, and separation from the empire. Parts 1 and 3 are mainly political, and with one chapter in Part 2 on imperial supervision of the colonies, make up about 525 pages, leaving 175 pages for the story of colonial ways of living and thinking about matters other than politics. The seventeenth century gets almost 300 of the 525 pages of political history; the author might better have followed the proportions of Osgood who gave four volumes to the eighteenth century as against three for the seventeenth.

Writing for the type of instructor who wants more of the whole story of American life in his history, the reviewer believes Professor Chitwood's assignment of space to be faulty. It is true the author has gone even further than most writers in devoting the space he has to non-political subjects, but he has not gone far enough to satisfy the prevailing temper.

The first part of the volume carries the political story down through 1763. A noticeable and commendable feature in this section is the heavier emphasis on the southern and middle colonies than is usual in our books. From the vantage point of 1763 the author surveys the character of colonial population and labor, the means of earning a livelihood in agriculture, industry and commerce, religious and intellectual life, and finally the manners and customs of colonials.

Within these chapters themselves, the reader might well question the emphasis. Two chapters on religion are not too much considering its importance in colonial life, but in the chapter on population and labor there is too much on slavery, especially as contrasted with the little space devoted to other types of labor. This latter chapter has but two pages on the composition of the population, seven pages on free and indentured labor, and fourteen pages on slavery. The chapter on intellectual life is fragmentary. One paragraph to newspapers scarcely shows an understanding of their value; there is nothing of American scientific activity, no mention of the American Philosophic Society. There is too much dependence on the volumes of Wertenbaker and Adams in the *History of American Life* series, which may account for the paucity of Professor Chitwood's social material after 1763, the closing period of Adams' "Provincial Society."

Some contradictory statements appear in the text. "There was no strong opposition to the slave trade on moral grounds," it is said on page 419, and later it appears that the Quakers were its opponents (p. 427). On one page the slave is made to go "about his daily tasks cheerfully, often singing while at work" (p. 426), and three pages later the negro shows a "lack of interest" and reluctance in his work. Although more than eighty pages of very useful bibliographical notes are appended, the text itself does not always show the full benefit of acquaintance with such a bibliography. It does not appear advisable to quote other textbooks in the footnotes, and Professor Chitwood's faith in some authorities would probably not be shared by other students; for example, ex-Governor Alfred E. Smith on the founding of New York (p. 198, note 5), or John Fiske on other subjects. The value of a text often depends on an author's acquaintance with the best authorities. R. B. Morris' *Studies in the History of American Law*, is nowhere mentioned, but it would have been helpful to Professor Chitwood. The latter does not always know the worthlessness of some sources, for example, that Brickell's *Natural History of North Carolina* was largely plagiarized from the work of John Lawson. Jeremy Belknap's *New Hampshire* should have found a place in the extensive bibliography. The proofreading of the notes at the close of the book is less careful than elsewhere.

Probably the most serious deficiency in this text, as in so many on this period, is the failure to depict a society that was growing. There is no sense of an eighteenth century different in many ways from the seventeenth century. Until our authors can convey the picture of a dynamic society, we must say that their writing, like their subject, stands still.

MICHAEL KRAUS

College of the City of New York

La Salle. By Ross F. Lockridge, World Book Company, Yonkers-On-Hudson, New York, 1931. xvi, 312 pp. \$1.40.

Dealing with the period in American history which is perhaps the most glamorous and romantic of our annals, this volume aims to tell the story of La Salle, "the story of the toils and achievements of this plumed knight of France, who all unwittingly, laid the foundations for the territorial greatness of our own country." In so doing, Mr. Lockridge has sensibly allowed La Salle, Tonty, Hennepin, Membre, Joutel, and Douay to speak for themselves by a generous and judicious quotation from the sources, so that the color of the drama has been preserved and a sense of intimacy with its characters has been achieved. Simply written, presupposing little or no previous knowledge of the subject on the part of the reader, crisp and straight-forward, the book provides not only the narrative of La Salle, but also much valuable background material. Chapters on "The Iron Governor," "Knight and Seigneur," "The Couriers of the Cross," sketch the picture of New France, while those on "The Court of Louis XIV" and "Visions of Empire" portray the European scene, and with the chapter on "Bourbonism in America" connecting the New and the Old World.

The chief weakness of the book is the tendency of the author to stress the romantic and colorful aspects of the explorations of La Salle to the neglect of the more prosaic but equally important economic side of the case. The chapter on "The Couriers of the Cross" might be paralleled by one dealing with "The Coureurs de Bois"; and a chapter on "The Fur Trade" might be just as enlightening as that on "The Court of Louis XIV." In fact it would give a key to the understanding of the actual motives of La Salle.

In connection with these motives, Mr. Lockridge is inclined to eulogize, and at some points give his hero more credit than is really his due. Le Roi Soleil, according to the author, was possessed of the vision of a great empire in New France and La Salle was his instrument in executing the plan. In fact, the Grand Monarch was more interested in financing his European wars than in caring for the colonies in the New World. Frequently he demanded that exploration be curtailed so that the French might form a compact group in America. It is also well to keep in mind that the expenses of La Salle's first expeditions were borne, not by the King, but by La Salle. At a point where the primary and secondary

sources differ so as to render qualified statements a necessity, Mr. Lockridge has made the rather venturesome statement that "it is certain that he did reach the Ohio and explore it for some distance" (page 25), and that possibly he may have reached the Mississippi. The validity of the source, *L'histoire de M. de La Salle*, which the author used as a basis for this statement, has been questioned by Winsor and Shea.

Also, the statement that "La Salle had a lofty vision based upon the highest patriotism and the purest religious motives" (page 300) should be toned down a bit, since the sources offer evidence that La Salle, interested primarily in the extension of the fur trade, journeyed with the Recollets because they fulfilled a useful function in dealing with the Indians. This tendency to make La Salle a superman is further observable in the account of the fatal Gulf expedition in which La Salle is portrayed as a greater hero and leader than he really was, to the disparagement of Captain Beaujeu.

If there is any justifiable excuse for this exaltation of the glamorous and dramatic in the writing of "romantic" history, it can be found in the fact that Mr. Lockridge is writing primarily for juvenile readers. This book should be invaluable for the teacher who is seeking to interest the pupil. Its value is enhanced by sketch maps, an abundance of timely illustrations, an adequate index, a key to the pronunciation of difficult names, and an attractive format. Altogether, a much-needed addition to any high school library, which synthesizes the life of the man who "advanced the territorial pretensions of his nation equally with his own fortune."

JAMES M. EAGAN

New York City

King Cotton Diplomacy. Foreign Relations of the Confederate States of America. By Frank Lawrence Owsley. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931, XI, 617 pp.

In decades past historians of the American Civil War have endeavored to discover why the leading nations of

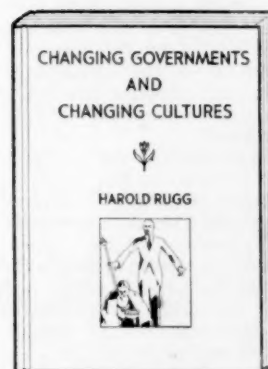
Western Europe, particularly England, did not openly aid the South in its struggle for independence. As a result of their efforts considerable light was shed on the problem. But their researches were incomplete partly because it was impossible for them to have access to foreign archives. Moreover, with the exception of J. M. Callahan, none of these writers attempted to deal directly with confederate diplomacy. Professor Owsley's work, therefore, fills a gap in American historiography.

In gathering data for this volume the author has ransacked every historical nook and corner which might yield information. As a Guggenheim traveling fellow he spent many months examining the British and French Foreign Office Papers and the controversial literature and propaganda relating to the Confederacy. In this country the unpublished Picket and Mason Papers, as well as other archival material, were carefully checked. As a consequence of this meticulous scholarship, Professor Owsley's work is definitive. Unlike his predecessors he refuses to accept the older theory that the high ideals of the suffering Lancashire cotton people prevented England from aiding the South. He also refuses to accept the later economic theory that bad harvests made England fear a wheat famine if she entered the war against the northern grain states. He offers as his own theory, which he supports with a wealth of evidence, that England was making tremendous war profits in cotton, linen, wool, munitions, and ships. Moreover, he shows very conclusively that as a result of the war the American merchant marine, England's greatest rival, was to all intents and purposes completely destroyed. For England to have entered the war might have meant the partial destruction of her own merchant fleet.

Northern writers have been prone to stress the effectiveness of the blockade. Professor Owsley, however, cites figures to show that the blockade was little more than one on paper. Moreover, he points out that the blockade was a source of little friction with English ship owners and merchants. His

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explanation of the failure of France to come to the aid of the South is illuminating and confirms our earlier notions of Napoleon III and his tenuous position at the time.

In Chapter XI, "The Climax of Intervention," the author discusses at some length the much-talked-of British Cabinet meeting of October 23, 1862. Spencer Walpole makes Palmerston responsible for the original plan of mediation. Professor Owsley agrees with the late Ephraim Adams that Lord Russell, who sympathized with the North, was the one who urged mediation or recognition in October of that year.

Professor Owsley writes in simple, straightforward fashion. Yet on occasion his phrases are trenchant and one soon learns that he is not a hero worshiper. Seward, for instance, is "an arrant ass," or a "consummate poker player." Or again the "belligerent Seward is doing the war dance." Seward is an "inveterate optimist." He has the "substitutes and subterfuges of a patent medicine show-speller." William Dayton, our minister to France, is characterized as energyless, stout, and apoplectic, could not speak French, and moved in a vacuum in France. Gideon Welles is a moron and Palmerston a "foxy old warrior" and "the human cork." General Almonte is the throne-warmer for Maximilian. A. D. Mann exudes optimism and self-satisfaction, and Mesuminger is the "measly secretary." Though these and other surprising figures of speech may startle the purist, they certainly enliven the narrative.

Bibliography, footnotes, and index are well arranged. For students of the Civil War period this volume is invaluable. Professor Owsley's accomplishment makes every student of American history his debtor.

SARAH A. WALLACE

Washington, D.C.

Exploring American History. By Mabel B. Casner and Ralph H. Gabriel. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1931. Pp. 787, \$1.96.

This book grew out of dissatisfaction with ordinary American history textbooks by a teacher "in a typical town in an industrial state." She began to experiment along the lines of the "new history," assisted by familiarity with recent pedagogical developments as applied to history teaching. She procured the assistance and cooperation of a Yale professor. The result is something more than the conventional textbook. The most important improvement, perhaps, is the successful planning and building of the book around a few important topics lucidly treated by the unit problem method. Another distinct advantage is the inclusion of a large number of extracts from authoritative sources which provides pupils with materials for individual verification. The illustrations also are very good.

There are two weaknesses in the book we wish to note; one somewhat peculiar to this book, the other found in practically all extant textbooks in United States history published in America. The first weakness is due to the over-ambitious program set by the authors. They attempted to produce a book perfectly graded (7th and 8th), adapted to socialized recitation, suited to unit mastery procedure, providing for individual progress, embracing the problem method and allowing creative teaching. Unfortunately, all this is not well accomplished.

The second weakness, the common one, is that the book fails to avoid misleading and potentially prejudicial statements in reference to that most difficult period of United States history—the Reconstruction. One example: "In many of the Southern States the majority of the members of the state legislature were negroes who had been working as field hands, only a few years before, or as house servants on the southern plantations. The negroes were ignorant and most of the carpetbaggers were rascals" (p. 503). Every liberally trained historian, we think, will admit this to be a rather sweeping generalization. There are no exceptions given or adequate qualifications made in the text. The reviewer holds that such a careless generalization, authoritatively given to young people, is not conducive to proper understanding and appreciation of a large element of our population. Yet despite such lapses this volume is to be commended for its originality and point of view.

A. H. GORDON

Georgia State Industrial College, Savannah

The Constitutional History of England to 1216. By William A. Morris. The Macmillan Company. New York. 1930, xii, 430 pp.

This scholarly volume is not a textbook, but a treatise based upon a faithful study of the sources and the abundant secondary discussions to be found in monographs and in periodical literature. It differs from the history of Stubbs chiefly in its almost total omission of political history and of the philosophical surveys concerning European development as a whole in which the great bishop delighted. As to the former, Professor Morris has merely inserted a few introductions (printed in distinctive type) that contain brief summaries of political events. He would have been well advised to delete them; their brevity renders them of little practical value to the beginner and the specialist does not need them; the pages would have been better devoted to the development of the main theme. As to the philosophic views, the author is not interested in matters of that sort; he prefers to spend his time and space on the problem of stating modern interpretations of the facts and theories of the development of the English constitution down to 1216. It may be said that he has brought Stubbs down to date in a far more satisfactory way than Petit-Dutaillis was able to do in his edition with elaborate notes on certain special topics.

George Burton Adams, Liebermann, Tout, Round, Vinogradov, Maitland, Haskins and many a lesser light have contributed in greater or smaller measure to this volume, and abundant footnotes declare the laborious study and the erudition necessary to write it. For the change in views during the past half-century has been profound. We have learned much about the Anglo-Saxons, about feudalism in England, and about administrative history that lay hidden from the scholars of that earlier generation.

The author is well equipped for the task of such a synthesis because he has taught English constitutional history for over twenty years and during a still longer time his own special studies have familiarized him with the source materials of the period.

Other volumes will follow carrying the story to 1485. May it be hoped that the text will be somewhat expanded. Sometimes the descriptions in the present work are so succinct that they lose in clarity. For example, the discussion of bookland, of the possessory assizes, of the Constitutions of Clarendon, and of the Charter of Henry I would all profit by further elaboration to make the work clearer, more interesting, and readable. It deserves this modification, for it is a book of sound scholarship, of inestimable value to us all, and it must find its place on the shelves of every student of the subject.

SYDNEY K. MITCHELL

Yale University

France under the Bourbon Restoration, 1814-1830. By Frederick B. Artz. Harvard University Press, Cambridge: 1931. Pp. xi, 443. \$1.50.

The author states in the preface to this book that he has tried to do for the Restoration what books like Lowell's *Eve of the French Revolution* have done for the *Ancien Régime*; that is, he has endeavored to describe a period in a readable and scholarly fashion; he has tried to be complete without attempting to chronicle every event. His efforts have been eminently successful and the reviewer believes that this work compares favorably with the French monograph on the Restoration by G. Weill, *La France sous la monarchie constitutionnelle*, that it is the best study of the Restoration in English, and that it is one of the outstanding contributions by members of the American Historical Guild to historical literature in recent years.

One of the happy features of the book is its organization. Instead of endeavoring to give a running account of the events of the Restoration like a medieval chronicler, Professor Artz treats his subject topically. There are chapters on politics, "The Clerical Question," under which is incorporated a consideration of Eclecticism and Positivism, economic developments, society, and "The Romantic Revolt." This division of the subject makes possible an impressionistic presentation that is as effective as a Monet canvas. It pro-

vides a comprehensible picture of the years from 1814 to 1830 in France. Nor does the organization account entirely for the book's effectiveness, for Professor Artz possesses a style that is neither dull nor super-rhetorical, but is clear, lucid, and concise.

Perhaps the most valuable chapter in the book for the English reader is the one devoted to economic considerations, because it contains material from the comparatively recent books in French by S. Charl  ty, in the *Histoire de la France contemporaine*, edited by Ernest Lavisse, by Henri S  e, and by Charles Ballot. Moreover, the chapter is well organized and presents a good summary of conditions of the Restoration Period. It is unfortunate, however, that on one or two occasions the author slips from the course of straightforward historical narrative to generalize in a way that reflects a credence in classical economic doctrines. A case in point may be found near the bottom of page 203 where, after discussing the cotton textile industry, this conclusion is drawn: "Here, as elsewhere in French industry, high tariffs retarded improvements." This is at best only partially true, for as Professor Artz states on the very next page, industrial improvements were retarded in France by lack of technical information, of skilled workers, and of foreign markets, and by the financial panic of 1826. One would have just as plausible a case if one stated that there would have been no cotton industry in France if there had been no tariffs. It is certain, at least, that the abolition of sugar duties choked the nascent beet sugar industry and that it was only resuscitated by tariffs and subsidies after 1820 (p. 208). In the same chapter it is contended that France had no colonial policy during the Restoration (p. 219). This is hardly in accordance with the facts, for although colonies were not vital to the French economic organism at this time, the government did pursue a definite policy toward its few overseas possessions—a policy that was definitely mercantilistic.¹

Furthermore, on page 197 there is a statement to the effect that although France had little coal, "at the opening

of the nineteenth century the French did not even utilize the coal they had." Yet the next page is devoted to a description of French exploitation of national coal deposits.

The weakest chapter, in the opinion of the reviewer, is the one devoted to politics, for in endeavoring to reduce his story to a minimum the author has at the same time introduced so many details that the picture is not a clear one. The chapter on the various classes in society is good except for certain *lacunae* in the treatment of economic thought, especially in the fact that no mention is made of the theorists, notably the brother of J. B. Say, who supported the protectionist policies that were put into force. Nor does Professor Artz include in the bibliography the excellent history of economic doctrines by Gonnard nor De Waha's *Die National  konomie in Frankreich*. The author's widest range of knowledge seems to be in the field of literature and his discussion of the "Romantic Revolt" is one of the best for its length that has come to the attention of the reviewer.

There are a few typographical errors: on page 37 "county" should read "country"; on page 44 a hyphen is omitted in the dividing of "franchise"; on page 265 the last word should be "It" not "I"; and on page 296 a period should close the last sentence. R  gime is usually spelled with an accent in English as well as in French and foreign words are put in italics.

In spite of these criticisms the book is an excellent one and the reviewer trusts that what he has said will not be construed to be derogatory. The review will have failed its purpose if it deters a single person from reading the book itself.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

Columbia University

¹ See Charl  ty, Lavisse, editor, *Histoire de la France Contemporaine* (vol. IV; pp. 280 ff.).

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French Opposition to the Mexican Policy of the Second Empire. By Frank Edward Lally. (Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, Series XLIX, no. 3; Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1931; 163 pp.)

Misconceptions as to the support which Maximilian received in France for his Mexican venture should be removed by this careful survey of the situation. French interest in Mexico was not new in the 1860's, but can be traced as far back as 1689, and during the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries this interest became intensified. When Napoleon the Little undertook, with England and Spain, to force Jaurez to take action on the Jecker Bonds, French Liberals suspected the purposes of the expedition. The government, through its press, was slow to clarify the situation, but rather evaded the issue, misrepresenting the success of French arms, and insinuated that France by its action had assumed the "white man's burden" on behalf of Mexico. During 1862 there was much discussion of the Mexican policy, and the press, for the moment unshackled by censorship, was the leader of the opposition. We must not think of the press as unanimous in its protest, for the various journals controlled by the government attacked the Liberals as traitors. The Polish revolt of 1863 served to divert public opinion from Mexico, and the Liberals in the Corps were outvoted. By August 15, with the capture of Puebla, the government was ready, amid great celebration, to call Maximilian to the throne of Mexico. Continued interest in Poland, fostered by Napoleon, served to delay the appearance of forceful opposition. Thiers and Favre led the attack in the Corps, which none the less supported the government. By the Treaty of Miramar (9 April 1864) Maximilian consented to become Emperor of Mexico, and at once two questions arose: Now that Mexico had a government, why should not the French troops be withdrawn; and would the United States carry the implied threat of the McDougall Resolution into effect? Liberal opposition centered around these two points, while the Imperialists no longer stressed the punitive aspects of the expedition, but rather dealt with the concomitant glory of Latin civilization. With the conclusion of the Civil War in America, Secretary Seward was free to devote his attention to the enforcement of the Monroe Doctrine, and the French Government found it impossible to continue its pretensions in Mexico. The Empress Charlotte, appealing to Napoleon in person for aid, was refused any hope of further assistance, and the Corps, voting unanimously in accordance with Napoleon's wish, decreed against her. Now, because of the European situation, the French decided to withdraw all their troops from Mexico at one time (spring of 1867). The book concludes with a review of the events of 1867-1869 and a survey of the causes and results of the Emperor's policy.

HOWARD BRITTON MORRIS

College of the City of New York

The Story of "The Times." By William Dodgson Bowman. New York. Lincoln MacVeagh, The Dial Press, 1931. Pp. x, 342. \$4.00

Mr. Bowman roves about his theme, the history of the London *Times*, like a stray beagle looking for the scent. But he never quite finds it. As a result from his pages there never arises a coherent picture of the development of the newspaper or of its condition at any given time. Further, the book is marred by typographical carelessness and such unpardonable lapses as the mention of Meredith's novel as "Dream of the Crossways" (p. 170). The last part of the work is so hastily sketched in that the reader instead of attaining to an understanding of the twilight of *The Times* and of Northcliffe's policies for it, is merely left marveling at how much of the anti-German war feeling the author has been able to retain through thirteen years of peace.

Despite all its imperfections, however, the book is not without a distinct value, arising not from its treatment of the material but from the subject matter itself. The first John Walter in 1785 founded *The Daily Universal Register*, which became three years later *The Times*. In an uphill struggle featured by sixteen months in jail for a libel on the Duke of York, he won for his journal a place among the newspapers of the day. It remained for John Walter II to

make *The Times* outstanding. This he accomplished, partly by improving the foreign news service and partly by the introduction in 1814 of steam presses which enabled the paper to reach subscribers sooner and to operate more cheaply. How the new presses were secretly installed in a nearby house, and how the first issue on them was run off, unknown to the pressmen, who would have wrecked their mechanical competitors, is a story out of melodrama.

It was under the editorship of Barnes and Delane (1817-1877) that *The Times*, using its preliminary advantages, forged ahead of its competitors, until prime ministers made treaties with it as with a foreign power, kings gave ear to its words, and governments shook before its attacks. Conservative as it was, *The Times* opposed the Corn Laws and announced the repeal almost before the ministers had realized that it was imminent. During the Crimean War it was *The Times* with its criticism of the English military system that made army officers chew their mustaches in rage and paved the way for army reform. As late as 1870, when Bismarck wished to arouse English feeling against France it was to *The Times* that he gave Napoleon III's project for partitioning Belgium.

Under the editors Chenery (who had been a professor of Arabic) and Buckle (1877-1912) the great days of *The Times* passed. It never quite recovered from the shock to its prestige occasioned by the disclosure that it had bought the forged Parnell letters "... with as little care or caution as a child purchases candy." By the 1890's *The Times* was selling atlases, boosting book clubs, and foisting out of date encyclopedias on its public to revive a waning income. Modern journals had risen to give reading matter to a new public. In 1908 the inevitable happened and the semi-bankrupt *Times* passed into the hands of the arch-prophet of the new journalism, Northcliffe. Even Northcliffe discovered, however, that there were traditions in *The Times* too deep-rooted to be changed. It became modernized somewhat, but it retained a shadow of its former glory and much of its old individuality.

With such a story to tell, the teller cannot altogether blur the outlines. Mr. Bowman, too, uses good judgment in his quotations; so occasional vivid gleams illumine the progress of *The Times* through the nineteenth century. The historian or the journalist will linger over the story of *The Times*, for it is after all an epic.

CHARLES WOOLSEY COLE

Columbia University

Book Notes

Volume II of *The Papers of Randolph Abbott Shotwell* (The North Carolina Historical Commission, Raleigh, 1931. X, 581 pp.), edited by J. G. de Rouillac Hamilton with the collaboration of Rebecca Cameron, continues Shotwell's story from the Battle of Gettysburg to the end of the Civil War. This completes Part I and takes a little over two hundred pages. Part II deals with Shotwell's post-war experiences. This part contains valuable material on the efforts of the South to liberate itself from the grip of the Northern radicals.

The Romance of Transport by Ellison Hawks (Crowell, New York, 1931. p. 333, illus.) is a rather curious work, to which the fact that the author is the editor of a boy's magazine may possibly be the key. It is the avowed purpose of the author to surround the history of transportation in England with an atmosphere of romance, but the effort falls short of success, for the book as it stands is too short and too superficial to be considered history, and it is a distinct disappointment as romance. Some of the ubiquitous illustrations are very good, but there is an unfortunate tendency to space them without regard to their relation to the text. One parting shot—the binding is not worthy of the publisher—H.B.M.

Latin America in World Politics. By J. Fred Rippy. (Crofts, New York. Revised Edition. 1931. 301 p.) So far as the main body of this revised edition is concerned it is

rather a second edition, the foot-notes not even having been brought down to date. The revision lies in the addition of a very fine chapter upon the attempts of the Spanish Americans to achieve an international ideal, in spite of the wars and rivalries that have beset the years since the Panama Congress of 1826. The former chapters upon the part played by the Latin Americans in European affairs, their attitude on North American matters, and the problems of Inter-American relations have undergone considerable alteration, the last two chapters being merged. These revisions have served to remove the feeling engendered by the former edition that the title should have been "World Politics in Latin America." It is altogether a very useful book.—H.B.M.

The publication of Marcus Wilson Jernegan's *The American Colonies 1492-1750, A Study of their Political Economic and Social Development* (Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1929. XXXIII, 457 pp.) as Volume I of the celebrated epochs of American History series is most welcome, first, because of its bibliographical material, and second, for its excellent chapters on the social and economic life of the colonies. With two or three exceptions the volumes dealing with the American colonies have stressed the political to the neglect of other phases of colonial activity. Fully half of Professor Jernegan's volume, however, is devoted to non-political material. Some readers may regret that the narrative covers only to the year 1750, but much is to be said for its present limits. Some, too, may complain that not enough attention is given to Spanish and French colonization, but as the author states in his prefatory note, curtailment of this subject was necessary in order to have space for the economic and social development of the English colonies. Those giving courses on the colonial period would do well to examine this compact and scholarly volume.

Every school teacher in the land who has not had the privilege of attending the lectures of Edward H. Reisner, professor of education in Teachers College, Columbia University, should read his volume, *The Evolution of the Common School* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1930. X, 590 pp.), for in it he traces the historical background of our present-day public school. More than half of the book is devoted to the United States. Here, among other things, he stresses the effect of the frontier on American education, the rise of free public schools, the development of our unitary public school system, the post Civil War developments in educational thought and practice, and the more recent trends in educational theory and practice. His last two chapters, "Democracy and Educational Opportunity" and "The Common Schools and the Future of World Society," are especially thought-provoking.

Voltaire and the Enlightenment (Selections from Voltaire, translated and edited by Norman L. Torrey. New York: F. S. Crofts, 1931. 97 pp.), for the use of students limited to English readings in small doses, is a book of representative excerpts from the significant pamphlets of Voltaire and comes as a delightful boon. Both in the secondary schools and in the colleges of this country the too frequent tendency in dealing with the great prophets of past ages is to associate their names with the titles of one or two of their works in a textbook or lecture and let it go at that. It is equally inadvisable to turn the undergraduate loose upon Beuchot's *Voltaire: Oeuvres Complètes* in ninety-odd volumes, and to list dogmatically the "contributions" of Voltaire to modern thought, apart from their varied expressions under his pen. With Mr. Torrey's book it will now be possible to assign readings in lucid English from the *Philosophical Dictionary*, from the *Questions of Zapata*, or from the *Letters on the Quakers*. A total of twenty-seven selections, comprising nearly one hundred pages, covers as adequately as selection can Voltaire's social, political, philosophical, and religious ideas. In spite of a somewhat conventional introduction, the author has been eminently fair to the most universal mind that the genius-infested eighteenth century ever saw. It is to be hoped that the publishers, if they contemplate a series of similar volumes, will select, let us say for Rousseau, as understanding an editor and as capable a translator as Mr. Torrey.—J.M.B.

CORRESPONDENCE

EDITOR, THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK:

I have before me a copy of the November issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* in which our name appears as one of the organizations which supplies teachers with material on juvenile delinquency and crime. We have already had numerous requests for such literature, which we are unable to supply because our field is limited to prisons and reformatories for adult offenders, both male and female, over sixteen years of age.

Classifying our society along with the Big Brother and Big Sister Federation, the Boys Club Federation, and others has apparently caused your readers some confusion as to the nature of our work and I am taking this opportunity of calling it to your attention. You will also note that we are now located at 114 East 30th Street.

Sincerely yours,
WILLIAM B. COX, Secretary, National
Society of Penal Information

Books on History and Government Published in the United States From November 14 to December 19, 1931

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.
AMERICAN HISTORY

- Allen, Frederick L. Only yesterday; an informal history of the nineteen-nineties. N.Y.: Harper; 384 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
- Barck, Oscar T., Jr. New York City during the War for Independence. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 267 pp. (9 p. bibl.); \$4.25.
- Blegen, Theodore C. Norwegian migration to America, 1825-1860. Northfield, Minn.: Norwegian-American Hist.-Assn.; 424 pp.; \$3.50.
- Bayer, Charles S. Early forges and furnaces in New Jersey. Phila.: Univ. of Penna. Press; 302 pp. (10 p. bibl.); \$5.00.
- Cornish, Hubert R. New Jersey; a story of progress. N.Y.: Scribner; 256 pp.; \$1.00.
- Ellis, Elmer. United States History Workbook. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan; 315 pp.; 80c.
- Greve, Jeanette S. The story of Gatlinburg. Tennessee. Strasburg, Va.: Shenandoah Pub. House; 144 pp.; \$1.50.
- Kinnan, Peter. Order book kept by Peter Kinnan, July 7-Sept. 4, 1776. Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press; 108 pp.; \$3.00.
- Millsbaugh, Arthur C. Haiti under American control, 1915-1930. Boston: World Peace Found.; 266 pp.; \$2.50.
- Moloney, Francis X. The fur-trade in New England 1620-1676. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press; 150 pp.; \$1.25.
- Myers, Margaret G. The New York money market; Vol. 1, origins and development. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 491 pp. (30 p. bibl.); \$5.00.
- Nickerson, W. Sears. Land and Ho!—1620; a seaman's story of the Mayflower. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 174 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$5.00.
- Peel, Roy V. and Donnelly, Thos. C. The 1928 [presidential] campaign an analysis. N.Y.: R. R. Smith; 198 pp.; \$1.25.
- Richardson, Lyon N. A history of Early American magazines, 1741-1789. N.Y.: Nelson; 425 pp. (13 p. bibl.); \$5.00.
- Spahr, Margaret, and Giltner, E. E. The problems of our Nation. N.Y.: C. E. Merrill; 295 pp.; \$1.08.
- Wertenbaker, Thomas J. Norfolk, historic southern post. Durham, N.C.: Duke Univ. Press; 387 pp.; \$4.00.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Goldman, Hetty. Excavations at Entresis in Boeotia. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press; 310 pp.; \$15.00.
- Reisner, George A. Mycerinus; the temples of the third pyramid at Gizeh. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press; 313 pp.; \$35.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Beardwood, Alice. Alien merchants in England, 1350-1377; their legal and economic position. Cambridge, Mass.: Medieval Acad. of America; 224 pp.; \$4.00.
- Bowyer, Robert. The parliamentary diary of Robert Bowyer, 1606-1607. Minneapolis: Univ. of Minn. Press; 444 pp.; \$5.00.
- Ovington, J. A voyage to Surat in the year 1689. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 310 pp. \$5.00.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Bloch, Marc. Les caractères originaux de l'histoire rurale française. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press; 278 pp.; \$1.80.
- Boggs, Norman T. The Christian Saga 2 vols. [Christianity as a phase of European civilization]. N.Y.: Macmillan; 1105 pp.; \$9.00.
- Puryear, Vernon J. England, Russia, and the Straits question, 1844-1856. Berkeley, Calif.: Univ. of Calif. Press; 497 pp. (18 p. bibl.); \$4.00.
- Riker, T. W. The making of Roumania; a study of an international problem. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 600 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$7.00.
- Rosenberg, Arthur. The birth of the German Republic, 1871-1918. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 294 pp.; \$4.75.
- Schuman, Frederick L. War and diplomacy in the French Republic. N.Y.: McGraw-Hill; 469 pp. (5 p. bibl.); \$4.00.
- Shupp, Paul F. The European powers and the New Eastern question, 1806-1807. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 576 pp. (6 p. bibl.); \$6.75.
- Southard, Frank A., Jr. American industry in Europe. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 279 pp. (25 p. bibl.); \$3.00.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Cochran, M. H. Germany not guilty in 1914 (examining a much prized book). [Unfavorable criticism of "The Coming of the War, 1914," by Bernadotte E. Schmidt, Boston: Stratford; 244 pp.; \$2.00.
- Golovine, Lieut. Gen. Nicholas N. The Russian army in the World War. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press; 306 pp.; \$3.25.
- Henderson, Arthur. Consolidating World Peace. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 27 pp.; \$1.00.
- Simonds, Frank H. Can Europe Keep the peace? N.Y.: Harper; 373 pp.; \$3.00.
- Wilgus, William J. Transporting the A.E.F. in Western Europe, 1917-1919. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 640 pp. (11 p. bibl.); \$12.50.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

- Gardner, Arthur. Medieval sculpture in France. N.Y.: Macmillan; 687 pp.; \$18.00.
- Mourret, F. The Papacy. St. Louis; B. Herder; 250 pp.; \$1.35.
- Thompson, James W. Economic and social history of Europe in the later Middle Ages, 1300-1530. N.Y.: Century Co.; 553 pp.; \$5.00.

MISCELLANEOUS

- Arnold, Thomas W. and Guillaume, Alfred, editors. The legacy of Islam. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 432 pp.; \$3.50.
- Hallberg, Charles W. The Suez Canal; its history and diplomatic importance. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 434 pp. (14 p. bibl.); \$5.25.
- Symons, Farrell. Courses on international affairs in American colleges, 1930-1931. Boston: World Peace Found.; 371 pp.; \$5.00.
- Toynber, A. J., and Boulter, V. M. Survey of international affairs, 1930. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 614 pp.; \$7.00.

BIOGRAPHY

- Dearborn, H. A. S. The life of William Bainbridge of the United States Navy. Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press; 255 pp.; \$5.00.
- Martin, Percy Alvin. Simon Bolivar, the liberator. Stanford Univ. Calif.: Stanford Univ. Press; 34 pp.; 75c.
- Bülow, Bernhard H. M. K., fürst von. Memoirs of Prince von Bülow, Vol. 2, From the Morocco crisis to resignation, 1903-1909. Boston: Little, Brown; 641 pp.; \$5.00.

- Chadwick, Mara L. P. The Story of Columbus. Chicago: A. Whitman; 188 pp.; \$1.00.
- Miller, Francis T. Thomas A. Edison, benefactor of mankind. Phila.: Winston; 320 pp.; \$1.50.
- Pink, Louis H. Gaynor, the Tammany mayor who swallowed the tiger. N.Y.: International Press, 106 7th Ave.; 256 pp.; \$2.75.
- Lloyd, J. E. Owen Glendower. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 161 pp.; \$3.50.
- Chamberlin, Frederick C. The private character of Henry the Eighth. N.Y.: Ives Washburn; 390 pp.; \$3.50.
- Hertz, Emanuel. Abraham Lincoln; a new portrait; 2 vols. N.Y.: Liveright; 1026 pp.; \$10.00 set.
- Nichols, Roy F. Franklin Pierce, Young Hickory of the Granite State. Phila.: Univ. of Penna. Press; 632 pp. (13 p. bibl.); \$5.00.
- Lindley, Ernest K. Franklin D. Roosevelt. Indianapolis; 379 pp.; \$3.00.
- Crewe, Marquess of. Lord Rosebery. N.Y.: Harper; 607 pp.; \$5.00.
- Beardsley, Harry M. Joseph Smith and his Mormon Empire. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 433 pp. (8 p. bibl.); \$4.00.
- Warwick, Frances E. M. G., Countess of. Discretions. N.Y.: Scribner; 311 pp.; \$3.00.
- Fay, Bernard. George Washington, Republican aristocrat. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 313 pp.; \$4.00.
- Guedalla, Philip. Wellington. N.Y.: Harper; 549 pp. (44 p. bibl. notes); \$4.00.
- Baker, Ray Stannard. Woodrow Wilson, life and letters, vols. 3 and 4. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, Doran; 495, 524 pp.; \$10.00 set.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Hubbard, Ursula P. The co-operation of the United States with the League of Nations and with the International Labor Organization. N.Y.: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace; 159 pp.; 5c.
- Mogi, Sobei. The problem of federalism; a study in the history of political theory. 2 vols. N.Y.: Macmillan; 1144 pp.; \$12.00.
- Moxey, Chester C. You and your government. Boston: D. C. Heath; 605 pp.; \$1.76.
- Muller, Heler M., compiler. The World Court. N.Y.: H. W. Wilson; 252 pp. (9 p. bibl.); 90c.
- Nowlin, William F. The Negro in American national politics. Boston: Stratford; 148 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$2.00.
- Pitamic, Leonidos. Some notions on the State and its international phases. Wash., D.C.: School of Foreign Service, Georgetown Univ.; 59 pp.
- Sherrington, Charles E. R. Government interference with the free play of economic forces. Fitchburg, Mass.: Alvan T. Simonds; 47 pp. \$1.00.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Causes of Social Revolutions. R. A. Orgaz (*Sociology and Social Research*, November-December).
- The Nature of Democracy. R. K. Gooch (*Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, September).
- Democracy and Culture. G. E. G. Catlin (*Contemporary Review*, December).
- The Biographer and His Victims. C. M. Fuess (*Atlantic Monthly*, January).
- The Press and Foreign Policy. J. F. Scott (*Journal of Modern History*, December).
- The Primitive Church and the Gnostic Heresy. R. R. Hull (*Truth*, December).
- St. Augustine and International Peace. Herbert Wright (*Thought*, December).
- Unrest, Culture Contact, and Release during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. Howard Becker (*Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, September).

- Grecian Influence on Roman Education. A. R. Gleason, S. J. (*Thought*, December).
- Spain and Its Colonies, 1808-1820. A. F. Simmerman (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, November).
- Recent Developments in Spain. P. A. Martin (*University of California Chronicle*, October).
- The Revolutionary Vergennes and Lafayette versus the Farmers General. F. L. Nussbaum (*Journal of Modern History*, December).
- Franco-German Relations: a Vicious Circle. J. D. Gregory (*English Review*, November).
- Religion and Politics in Alsace. Edmond Vermeil (*Foreign Affairs*, January).
- Germany and the Corridor. W. H. Dawson (*Nineteenth Century*, December).
- Germany Turns from Junkerism. Emil Ludwig (*Contemporary Review*, November).
- Huldreich Zwingli, a Man (1484-1531). H. A. Clay (*Contemporary Review*, November).
- Supply in the Russo-Japanese War, 1904-1905. Maj. C. C. Drake (*Quartermaster Review*, November-December).
- The Spectacle of Soviet Russia. S. K. Ratcliffe (*English Review*, November).
- Russian Communism as a Religion. S. K. Ratcliffe (*Yale Review*, Winter).
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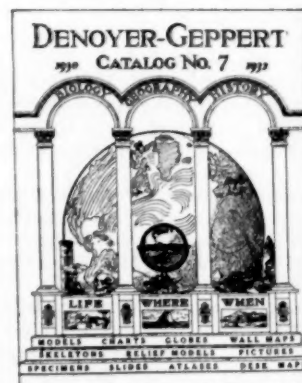
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